AD/A-006 123

RAIN ATTENUATION STUDIES

G. Drufuca

McGill Radar Weather Observatory

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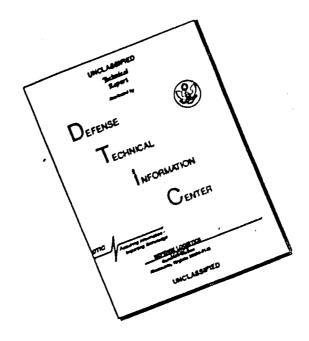
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Manch 1973

78. TOTAL NO. OF PAGES

7b. NO. OF REFS

March 1973

/05

14

.F19628-73-C-0052

a. PROJECT NO. Task No., Work Unit No.

6672-03-01

c. DOD Element

62101F

9b. OTHER REPORT NO(5) (Any other numbers that may be assigned this report)

O1F 96. OT

d. DOD Subelement

686672

AFCRL-TR-73-0352

10. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT

A- Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

TECH, OTHER

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12. SPONSORING MILITARY ACTIVITY

Air Force Cambridge Research Laboratories
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Bedford, Massachusetts 01730

IS. ABSTRACT

The statistical properties of rain attenuation which dominate propogation at frequencies above 10 GHz are required for planning radio systems at these frequencies. These properties are studied for three frequencies, 11.2, 12.7 and 18.76 GHz and various link lengths, 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5 and 15 mi at six locations in Canada. Two approaches were used to simulate the attenuation; one utilizes weather radar data in the AZIOR format, a rectangular coordinate variation of PPI; the other utilizes rainguage records and radiosonde data and the concept of a synthetic storm. Rain attenuation statisites are developed from these two approaches to describe the probability of occurence of an attenuation event for songle links of various length, pairs of parallel links with various separation distance and for pairs of links on the same route.

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	KEY WORDS	LIN		LINI		LINK C	
		ROLE	WT	ROLE	WT	ROLE	WT
Rain attenuation							
						163	
Communications						14	188
Microwave link				17.			
Weather radar							37.0
Radar Climatolog	y						
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RAIN ATTENUATION STUDIES

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Contract No. F19628-73-C-0052 Project No. 6672 Task No. 667203 Work Unit No. 66720301

Scientific Report No. 3

March 1973

Contract Monitor: Albert C. Chmela Meteorology Laboratory



Approved for public release; distribution unlimited

Prepared for

AIR FORCE CAMBRIDGE RESEARCH LABORATORIES
AIR FORCE SYSTEMS COMMAND
UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

ABSTRACT

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PREFACE

The aim of this report is to collect in one place and in printed form the results of three years of work on rain attenuation statistics. Nothing, or close to nothing, has been done here toward the explanation or rational interpretation, of these results in terms of storm modelling or climatology, although these results contain much information on these topics. These results should just be consiedered for what they are: observations of the precipitation process translated in a form suitable for the planning of radio systems across Canada.

I am grateful to the Atmospheric Environment Service for rain-guage and upper-wind data, and to McGill Radar Weather Observatory for radar records. (The basic radar there is on loan from the Air Force Cambridge Research Laboratories under their contract F19628-73-C-0052.)

I wish to acknowledge the contribution of Mr. Chul-Un Ro who carried on the analysis of the rainguage data for Montreal and the other locations in Canada during his work toward a Master's degree in Meteorology.

I am deeply indebted to Prof. J.S. Marshall and to the other members of the Stormy Weather Group; in particular to my friends Dr. R.R. Rogers and I. Zawadzki who had many suggestions and useful criticisms. Dr. K.S. McCormick and D.S. Strickland of CRC (which supported the work) have been most helpful and understanding.

Mr.Daniel Salomon did all the computer work and his contribution is greatly appreciated.

RAIN ATTENUATION STUDIES

Scientific Report MW-77

Volume I

CONTENTS

			Page					
PRE	FACE							
1.	INTRO	DDUCTION	1					
	Two	tement of the purpose and of the parameters to be evaluated approaches: Radar and raingauges eriments involved						
2.	ATTENUATION BY RADAR							
	2.4 2.5 2.6 2.7	calculate attenuation, advantages and disadvantages	1 2 2 3 3 4 4					
3.	ATTENUATION BY RAINGAUGE - IN MONTPEAL							
	3.3 3.4 3.5 3.6 3.7	Introduction, objectives, year to year variability, sample size Technique, description and assessment of the validity of the method Dependence of results on the parameters - v, k, Ten years data in Montreal - single link statistics Joint probabilities Duration statistics Frequency dependence Year to year variability	5 5 6 7 7 8					
,								
4.	4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4 4.5 4.6 4.7	Introduction, raingauge locations, radiosonde locations Halifax Toronto Thunder Bay Winnipeg Edmonton Comparisons - attenuation climatology of Canada Planning a radio system across Canada	8 9 9 9 9 9 10 10					
REF	ERENCI	rs.	1.1					

1. INTRODUCTION

For the planning of radio systems making use of frequencies above 10 GHz the knowledge of the statistical properties of rain attenuation which dominate the propagation at these frequencies is required.

The basic parameter in the design of a radio system is the outage time of the system which can be due to various causes, among which is attenuation by rain. The outage time due to rain attenuation depends on the possibility of the system to recover from the noise on attenuated signal. This possibility is limited to a given threshold, which is a function of the system characteristics. The outage time is then the total time for which the rain attenuation exceeds this threshold.

This work attempts to describe the statistical properties of the time for which rain attenuation exceeds a given value as a function of the frequency and the hop length. These properties are studied for three frequencies (11.2; 12.7; 18.76 GHz) and various hop lengths (2.5; 5; 7.5; 10; 12.5; 15 mi). Results are given for six locations across Canada. They are: Edmonton, Winnipeg, Thunder Bay, Toronto, Montreal and Halifax.

Two approaches have been used, the first, described in chapter 2, makes use of the McGill weather radar data for 1971, jointly with the data of an experimental link at 11.2 GHz installed by BNR in Ormstown (fig. 1). In this experiment the radar data of the summer 1971 have been used to simulate the attenuation process over a dense network of links of various lengths, and the observed statistics from the BNR link have been used to calibrate the simulation. This experiment has given unique information about extreme events, and thanks to the very large sample size of the data, events with probability of $\sim 10^{-8}$ have been evaluated. Further it has provided unique information about joint probabilities of attenuation for parallel links such as required for the design of twin route systems.

A second approach, described in chapter 5, consists in the development of a method of simulating the attenuation process from

raingauge records and radiosonde data. The method is based on the concept of a synthetic storm first introduced by Hamilton and Marshall. The method has been tested with the aid of the McGill Weather Radar and the BNR link and then applied to ten years of data for the six locations across Canada (chapter 4). The results allow study of the year to year variations of the statistics of interest and will be of help in planning radio systems across Canada.

2. ATTENUATION BY RADAR

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this work has been to obtain attenuation statistics for the Montreal region. In order to design a radio system it is desirable to know the probability of occurrence of attenuation events for one link down to a very low fraction of time (typically 10-8 of one year). For the Montreal region, one microwave link operating for a one year period provides a sample of sufficient size to contain events with a typical probability of about 10-6. In a first approximation it would be necessary to operate some 100 links a year to reach the desired probability level, and this is just for one frequency and one hop length. It is obvious that this approach is not practical or economical. As an alternative, the information requested can be obtained empirically from several years of raingauge records (chapter 3) or from radar data. A radar can cover a large geographical region, thus providing a large number of paths over which attenuation events can be calculated. In this work this approach has been carried out, and attenuation statistics have been evaluated at 11.2, 12.7, 13.7 GHz. These statistics are for single links of various length, for pairs of parallel links with various separation distances and for a pair of links on the same route. With the method employed no information about the duration of the events is obtained, although this information, from the raingauge data, is given in chapter 3. Radar

simulation of attenuation has been used and studied by various authors (1,2,3,). There are two major problems that arise in this kind of approach: calibration of the radar and evaluation of absolute probabilities. They will be discussed in 2.3 and 2.4.

The data used in this study have been provided by the McGill Weather Radar and they cover the summer months of 1971. A brief description of the radar follows.

2.2 The McGill Weather Radar

During 1971 the main features of the radar were:

Frequency 2,880 MHz

Antenna Diameter 30-foot paraboloid $(\theta, \beta = 0.8^{\circ})$

Peak Power 2 MW

Pulse Repetition Frequency 60 Hz

Pulse length 0.3 μ sec (pulse compressing a 4 μ sec pulse with a factor 13)

Sensitivity - 104 dBm (equivalent to a rainfall rate of 0.2 mm/hr at 200 km)

Dynamic Range 80 dB.

Every 5 minutes the radar scans a hemisphere with a radius of 200 km. The scanning consists of successive azimuth rotations at different elevation angles from 0.5° to 33°. Each rotation is completed in 10 seconds. The measured reflectivity is stored on 35 mm films with 5 dB thresholds. Use is made of the range resolution of 50 meters in combining the data from several contiguous contributing volumes (5 at the closest range of 25 km and 80 at the furthest range of 200 km) and then peak detecting in order to reduce random-phase fluctuations (4,5,6,7).

The data format, AZLOR, is on rectangular coordinates, azimuth (600 values) on abscissa and logarithm of range on ordinate (200 values going from 25 to 200 km) (8).

Although this radar system has not been designed for attenuation studies, it is very adequate for the purpose and some of its features are very helpful in this respect.

The AZLOR data format, although it distorts shapes and does not conserve areas, is very rational and is well suited for the attenuation simulation carried on by computer. The main advantage over PPI is that the data are relative to square areas so that links can be simulated in radial and tangential direction easily and promptly.

The antenna program limits the sampling time to 5 minutes, when one is interested in a simulation over a place as close to the ground as possible, but offers the possibility of using a plane at higher elevation in the frequent case when the weather at lower elevation is masked by ground clutter, thus increasing substantially the sample size. This procedure must be applied with some caution in relation to the altitude of the echo, possible presence of bright band and generally altitude of the freezing level, to avoid a contamination of the data with precipitation other than rain for which attenuation properties are not yet well known.

2.3 Data collection and analysis

The 1971 summer data have been used to calculate attenuation statistics. For this purpose, out of the elevation cycles of the antenna, one azimuth scan was chosen with as low an elevation angle as possible in order to consider echoes below freezing level but high enough to avoid ground clutter effects. Except for a few cases the elevation angle used was 0.8° above the horizontal. In order to reduce the amount of data to be analyzed, a threshold was applied to the original reflectivity data such that only attenuation events over 10 dB were considered. For each scan the reflectivity data were read from the film and punched on cards. A program made corrections for peak reading as a function of the number of independent samples, which depends on range. The program then transformed the data from reflectivity to attenuation using the following relations:

$$Y(db/mi) = .0003795 \ z \cdot ^{.775}(mm^6/m^3) \ @ 11.2 \ GHz$$

$$Y = .0006431 \ z \cdot ^{.750} \qquad @ 12.7 \ GHz$$

$$Y = .00258 \ z \cdot ^{.6875} \qquad @ 18.7 \ GHz$$

$$(2.3.1)$$

The data were integrated over a dense grid of paths of various lengths and separation distances. The attenuation events were weighted in function of range because of the logarithmic distribution in range and then they were collected in histograms.

The network was composed of parallel and perpendicular links directed along and across range. The network of links did not have a fixed geographical location but it was simply superimposed on a patch of weather so that the maximum possible number of attenuation events was observed.

In this way the possibility of obtaining absolute probabilities is apparently lost; but this shouldn't be cause of grief because this possibility has been lost already for more helpless reasons than inadequate way of processing the data. In fact the radar wasn't working all the time, for various reasons: power failures, equipment failures, maintenance requirements, among which one in particular is annoying, i.e. the compulsion technicians have to run calibration patterns in the middle of the most interesting convective activity and then to run them again after a short time. Over the whole summer, the usable data for this analysis covered six different days for a total of 22 hours and 20 minutes, which is a small part of the whole summer.

One must bear in mind that the data collected were subject to the condition that they could generate attenuation events of at least 10 db. In this way not only a large portion of data for a given day were neglected but also whole days were not considered, so that the present data are representative of a period of time much larger than the six days over which they were collected. Unfortunately it is not possible to establish exactly the representativeness of the data because not enough is known about the weather when the radar wasn't in operation for the reasons above. Further, these reasons are not independent of the weather, in the case of power failures, thus complicating the problem further. In this work it has been assumed that the data are representative of the whole summer, although, a distinct possibility exists that significant data have been missed.

The various histograms of attenuation events can be interpreted as conditional distribution functions with the condition that the probability of the 10 dB event is given. They were integrated to give probabilities and normalized in such a way that the probability of the 10 dB event was unity. One example is given in.fig. 2 for a length of 5 miles and at 11.2 GHz.

This was done for all lengths and all frequencies. To obtain absolute probabilities it is enough to estimate the probability of the 10 dB events and then to scale the probabilities for higher attenuation values accordingly.

As exposed in chapter 3, the estimate of the probability of the 10 dBz events can be obtained from raingauge records, thus allowing construction of absolute probability curves for all attenuation events. The actual results are presented in paragraphs 2.5 and 2.6.

2.4 Radar Calibration

The radar equation for weather radar with STC (sensitivity time control) can be written as:

$$(z)_{dB} = C + (\overline{P}_r)_{dB}$$
 (2.4.1)

where Z is the reflectivity factor, Pr is the average received power and C is the calibration constant which includes the characteristics of the radar and the dielectric constant of the precipitation. C changes in time and has been determined daily following the procedure described by Smith (9). The radam data have then been used to calculate attenuation statistics for 5 mile links at 11.2 GHz and these have been compared with the one obtained by a real 5 mile link operating at Ormstown within radar range (10), fig. 2. The probability curves are normalized to 1 for 10 dB of attenuation and are obtained using different values of C in steps of 0.5 dB in order to obtain the best fit between the calculated and the observed statistics (dotted line). It is apparent that the computed statistics are very sensitive to the radar calibration. The probability of exceeding 30 dB changes by a factor 10 for only a 2 dB variation in the constant C. This effect is influenced by hop length and frequency and would be different if the curves were more logically normalized to O dB but this example at least gives an idea of the order of magnitude. 2 dB is about the accuracy one can reasonably expect from a careful electrical calibration of the radar. The importance of a calibration "ad hoc" is then apparent, that is a calibration based on the fit of the attenuation statistics obtained from a large sample of data. In this case the discrepancy between the "electrical calibration constant" and the "attenuation calibration constant" was about 4 dB which compares well with the value of 3.5 found by I. Strickland in Ottawa for 1970 data (2), following a similar method.

2.5 Single link attenuation probabilities

Following the method outlined in 2.3 and 2.4 attenuation statistics were obtained from radar observations in the summer of 1970.

Fig. 3 shows the probability that a given attenuation is exceeded at 11.2 GHz for various link lengths. For comparison fig. 3 shows the probability curve obtained from the real link (dotted) and the probability curve obtained for 5 mile links from 10 years of raingauge records normalized to the same probability for 10 dB (dashed).

It is possible to observe some interesting features. The lowest fraction of time observed for the single link is ~10-6; for 10 link years is ~10-7; for about a total of 24 hours of radar data is ~10-8. All the curves are exponential until a certain value of probability and then they follow a law of the type ex. The single link is exponential until ~3.10-5, the 10 years until ~3.10-6 and the radar until ~3.10-7. It appears that increasing the sample size increases proportionally the range of probability over which the process observed can be considered exponential. This suggests that the process is exponential and that it is our method of observation that introduces deviations from the exponential form.

Figs. 4 and 5 show the same statistics for 12.7 and 18.7 GHz. The hop length dependence is shown more explicitly in figs. 6,7,8, where the probability of a given attenuation is plotted versus hop length at the three frequencies. In fig. 5 the statistics from 10 years of raingauge records are plotted for comparison (dotted lines). The fit is forced on the 10 dB level.

2.6 Joint probabilities

For the design of twin route radio systems the knowledge of joint probabilities of parallel links is required.

The knowledge of joint probabilities of adjacent links on the same route is required if a too conservative design is to be avoided (11). Both these probabilities have been evaluated from the radar data. Figs.9, 10,11,12,13,14, show joint probabilities for parallel links at 11.2 GHz, for values of hop length of 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5 and 15 miles versus separation distances. Figs.15, 16,17,18,19,20 are analogous to the previous one except at 12.7. Finally, figs.21,22,23 are at 18.7 GHz for hop length of 2.5, 5, 7.5 miles. As expected the joint probabilities approach the probabilities of single links when the separation distance approaches zero.

Conditional joint probabilities for links on the same route are given for adjacent links and links separated by a link length. It is preferred to use conditional probabilities instead of absolute joint probabilities because their use is more direct in the design of the communication system.

Figs. 24,25 show these statistics at 11.2 GHz, figs. 26,27 at 12.7 and figs. 28,29 at 18.7 GHz.

2.7 Accuracy of the results

There are many causes for errors in this approach. They correspond to the various steps necessary to arrive at the final results which consist of an estimation of the time that a given attenuation is exceeded. For this, measurements of reflectivity are made. The errors associated with these measurements depend on various factors, some of them controllable, some not. Random phase fluctuations are a first source of uncertainty which can be reduced increasing the number of independent samples (Smith, Marshall, Hitschfeld) (4,6). Reflectivity gradients also introduce uncertainties (Rogers) (7). Finally the reflectivity is stored in thresholds, in our case 5 dB, and this also introduces errors (Marshall) (5). Further, the McGill radar makes use of pulse compression and this introduces other uncertainties because of the time-side-lobes associated with this technique. The reflectivity values stored on film are then manually transferred to computer cards, thus introducing new errors, although the careful check employed limited this to a minimum. The simulation of attenuation introduces more errors because the exact length of the links could be obtained only in particular cases. The tolerance on length has been 10%.

The effect of all these factors is difficult to estimate. For this reason no clear statement on the accuracy of the method is available, although comparison of the results with the results of other independent approaches can be carried on. The statistics obtained with this approach compare very well with the ones obtained by a real link and by the raingauge method, figs. 3 and 6. From these comparisons it appears that the accuracy of the method is at least satisfactory because it produces estimates of attenuation probabilities that agree with estimates obtained independently.

2.8 Conclusions

Radar provides a powerful tool to evaluate attenuation statistics for microwave links. The main advantage over other methods is the enormous sample size of attenuation events that it is possible to collect in a few days. Of the six days considered here, two, 27 July and 10 August, contributed to most of the events. The reason is that one day of convective activity over a region of 200 km radius offers a full range of variability in rainfall rate and in precipitation patterns.

The sample size depends on the sampling time of the data and on the areal coverage of the radar. With the present antenna program of the radar the minimum

sampling time is 5 minutes. It was observed on a section of the data that sampling every 10 minutes did not affect the results so that it was possible to reduce the data analysis by a factor two. It was also found that sampling every 20 minutes affects the results. This obviously depends on the area and this problem will be studied in detail.

Disadvantages of a radar approach are, among others:

- great sensitivity to calibration, which imposes the auxiliary use of a microwave link or of a raingauge.
- practical impossibility of calculating, with the radar alone, absolute probabilities.

Furthermore, year to year variations in the statistics obviously cannot be extracted from a few days of radar data, but they can be evaluated by raingauge records or directly by microwave link data.

The joint probabilities presented here contain useful information about the spatial structure of precipitation patterns. At 12.7 GHz rainfall rate and specific attenuation are almost proportional, so that a value of attenuation is proportional to the amount of rain accumulated along the same path or to the rain accumulated to a point in an interval of time equal to the time necessary for the precipitation pattern to travel a distance equal to the path length. This equivalence of space and time statistics of precipitation pattern is known as the Taylor hypothesis. Evidence of the validity of this hyrothesis can be found in the measurements of autocorrelation functions of precipitation patterns by Zawadzki (12) and in the successful application of this hypothesis to the use of raingauge records for evaluating attenuation statistics (Chapter 3). From the joint probabilities of attenuation for parallel or adjacent links it is possible to evaluate the joint probabilities of accumulated precipitation for points separated by various distances and for the various periods of accumulation. This statistic is of interest in a variety of applications.

3. ATTENUATION BY RAINGAUGE IN MONTREAL

3.1 Introduction

Rain attenuation statistics can be estimated from raingauge records provided that the speed of translation of the precipitation patterns is known. This approach is quite appealing because suitable raingauge records are available from many locations in Canada and for a sufficient number of years. This study establishes a technique to evaluate attenuation statistics from the raingauge records. The technique is then applied to calculate statistics for six locations across Canada for a period of time of ten years so that year to year variability can be accounted for. Further, ten years of data provide an adequate sample size. In this chapter the results for Montreal are presented, the results for the other locations being presented in Chapter 4.

3.2 Technique. Description and testing

The method of employing raingauge records to generate attenuation statistics is based on the concept of "synthetic storm", first used in 1961 by Hamilton and Marshall (13) to calculate the effects of rain attenuation on data obtained by a weather radar operating at a wavelength of 3 cm. The present method is an application of the Hamilton and Marshall concept to the estimation of attenuation over a particular ground communication link.

As a storm or rainfall pattern moves over a raingauge, the measured rainfall rate varies with time. The variations arise from two effects, the advection of the spatial pattern of rain and changes that occur within the time required to pass over the raingauge. These effects are both present in raingauge records and are not separable without additional information about the structure and motion of the rain pattern. The Hamilton-Marshall "synthetic storm" is a description of the rain pattern in terms of rainfall rate as a function of distance along a line in the direction of storm motion. It is obtained from a raingauge record by converting the raw data of rainfall rate versus time into a function of distance by employing a storm translation velocity to transform time to distance. In the original Hamilton-Marshall approach, weather radar data on storm motion provided the velocity needed for the time-todistance conversion. As will be demonstrated below, radar data may not be essential for establishing this velocity.

Since the synthetic storm is based on the assumption that all time changes ob-

served at a point on the ground arise from the advection of spatial variations, it will not give an exact description of the distribution of rain with distance. It may be, however, that statistical properties of a large number of synthetic storms are approximately the same as the corresponding statistical properties of real storms. This is the hypothesis tested in the present study, where the properties of interest are certain integrals of the rainfall rate over specified distances.

This hypothesis is also known as Taylor's hypothesis. Evidence of it's validity can be found not only in this work but also in Zawadzki (12).

The synthesized storms express rainfall rate R as a function of distance x. As the first step in this analysis, rainfall rate is converted to specific attenuation Y through the formula

$$Y = kR^{\alpha} \quad (dB/mi) \qquad (3.2.1)$$

where k and α are empirical parameters depending on radio frequency. The attenuation over a distance L may be calculated by integrating Y(x) over an interval of length L:

$$A(x_o, L) = \int_{x_o}^{x_o+L} Y(x) dx . \qquad (3.2.2)$$

The result of this integration will generally depend or, the starting point \mathbf{x}_0 as well as the length of the interval. The variation of attenuation with time can then be simulated by changing \mathbf{x}_0 at a rate equal to the velocity of storm motion. In order to test the technique the measurements obtained from the BNR link in Ormstown (fig. 1) were used. Three raingauges were located along the link and they supplied the rainfall data.

Fig. 30 illustrates a particular synthetic storm in terms of both rainfall rate and specific attenuation, with the time-to-distance conversion indicated.

Attenuation was calculated as a function of time for this storm by use of (3.2.2), with L set at 5 mi and x₀ changing at a rate of 14 mi/hr (as obtained by radar). Values of k and x were selected to correspond to 11.2 GHz. The result of this calculation is shown in Fig. 31 and compared with the actual attenuation observed on the link.

That the calculated and actual attenuations are quite different is not surprising. First, the calculated attenuation cannot ac-

count for any time variations occurring in the storm as it moves along. Secondly, the simulated attenuation record corresponds to a link that is parallel to the direction of storm motion. In this example (as in most of the actual cases) the storm had an appreciable component of motion across the Ormstown link. Fig. 31 also shows that the simulated attenuation has a smoother curve than the observed attenuation. This is associated with the fact that the raingauge records do not allow rainfall rate to be measured with a time resolution better than about 1 min. No attempt was made to calculate attenuation with a finer resolution.

The experiment has been carried on for the summers of 1971 and 1972 and statistics from the link and the gauges are compared in fig. 32.

In these comparisons a set of values of k and a has been chosen so that the best fit is obtained. The values of k and & are given in table I for the three frequencies of interest, and they compare well with the values given in the literature, (14) . In spite of the fact that an individual synthetic storm may not lead to an attenuation record that agrees with observations, fig. 32 indicates a good agreement provided that the sample size is sufficient. While it may have been expected that the method of calculating attenuation would lead to some systematic bias effect, since all the simulated links are in the direction parallel to storm motion, this does not appear to be the case. Moreover, the results here indicate that the 1 minute resolution of the raingauges is adequate, at least over paths as short as 5 miles.

3.3 Dependence on the parameters

Velocity. The translation velocity of the storm plays an essential role in this analysis. Radar provides the best estimate of this velocity. But because radar facilities are not as common as raingauges, an attempt has been made to estimate the translation velocity from conventional radiosonde data. It has been found that the 700 mb wind nearest in time is a good estimate of the velocity. 700 mb corresponds on average to 3 km above sea level and is often referred to as "steering level". Fig. 33 compares probabilities obtained using radar and 700 mb velocities. The soundings are from Maniwaki 120 miles away from the experimental location (fig. 1). This comparison is considered successful and it justifies the use of radiosonde velocities as estimates of the translation velocity of precipitation patterns k and a.

The probability of a given value of attenuation depends on the value of k and \propto . In this study no direct evaluations of k and \propto were available so that values were chosen in order to have the best fit between calculated and observed statistics. This is a circular argument. To increase the confidence in the results the sensitivity of the results on k and \propto has been determined. The probability that a given attenuation is exceeded can be considered exponential:

$$P(A) = P_0 e^{-A/A_0}$$
 (3.3.1)

where R_0 is a function of hop length and R_0 is a function of frequency and hop length; R_0 is dependent on R_0 and R_0 .

It is of interest $\frac{\Delta P}{P}$ in function of Δk and $\Delta \, \alpha$.

Podoesn't depend on k and ∞ because it is the percentage of time when it rains. Differentiating one obtains:

$$\frac{\Delta P}{P} = \frac{A}{A_o^2} \left(L \approx \frac{\partial A_o}{\partial \alpha} + \Delta k \frac{\partial A_o}{\partial k} \right) . \qquad (3.3.2)$$

Using a set of values of k and α one can determine $\frac{\partial A_0}{\partial k}$ and $\frac{\partial A_0}{\partial \alpha}$ so that:

$$\frac{\angle P}{P} \simeq 35 \frac{A}{A_0^2} (\triangle \alpha + 10 \text{ } \Delta k) \qquad \qquad 11.2 \text{ GHz}$$

$$\frac{\angle P}{P} \simeq 32 \frac{A}{A_0^2} (\Delta \propto + 7.3 \Delta k) \qquad 12.7 \text{ GHz}$$

$$\frac{\Delta P}{P} \approx 65 \frac{A}{A_0^2} (\Delta \alpha + 2.2 \Delta k) \qquad 18.7 \text{ GHz} .$$

3.4 Ten years statistics - single links

Using the technique described in 3.2, ten years of raingauge records for Montreal have been analyzed. The years go from 1961 to 1970 and each year goes from May to September.

Fig. 34 shows the probabilities obtained for 5 miles hop length at 11.2 GHz for the 10 different years. 1964 has a peculiar behavior: one storm is such that it extends the curve up to 74 dB. This is

the record storm for Montreal with an intensity of 460 mm/hr. The return period of this event exceeds 100 years so that it cannot be included in averages over a ten year period. For this reason it has been disregarded in the analysis.

It is not clear to the author which is the best form of presenting statistics of events like the one in fig. 34. It has been decided to plot average probabilities over ten years for various hop lengths and frequencies (in this paragraph) and to describe year to year variability separately (3.8). An alternative approach is illustrated in fig. 35, where not only average probabilities are plotted but also probabilities corresponding to certain percentages of the population. The probabilities of a given attenuation in the various years are assumed to be random events normally distributed. Although this approach is limited here to one frequency and one link length it can be extended to other values using the data on year to year variability in 3.8.

Figs. 36,37,38 plot probabilities versus attenuation at 11.2, 12.7, 18.7 GHz; for hop lengths of 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5, 15 miles. The curves are straight lines until a certain percentage of time (~3.10-6 of one year) so that the probabilities can be considered exponential until that probability level. Comparison with radar data for larger sample size (paragraph 2.5) suggests that this is an observation effect due to insufficient sample, so that the probabilities should be considered exponential all the way.

3.5 Joint probabilities

With the same technique described in 3.2 it it possible to calculate statistics of joint attenuation events for successive links, these statistics being of interest in the planning of radio systems. Statistics for adjacent links are plotted in figs. 39, 40,41 in the form of conditional probabilities, the condition being that a given attenuation is exceeded on one of the links. At 18.7 GHz the plots are limited to a length of 5 miles. Figs. 42,43,44 present the same statistics for links separated by a hop length.

3.6 Durations

Table II presents a comparison of the durations of the attenuation events in the 1971 Ormstown experiment. It appears that the link and the raingauges agree although the sample size is so small that it is impossible to assess the capability of the raingauge to reproduce the statistics of durations experienced by the link. Nevertheless, it appears that the two sets of observations are consistent. Wistograms of durations of fade are presented for various lengths at 11.2 GHz only in the tables III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII. As an example, figs. 45 and 45 show the dependence on hop length and on attenuation level.

3.7 Frequency dependence

From the 10 years statistics presented in figs. 36,37,38 it is possible to obtain some information about frequency dependence of attenuation probabilities. In figs. 47,48, .9 attenuation of events with the same probability and hop length but different frequency are correlated so that the following empirical results are found:

$$A_{18.7} = 2.4 A_{11.2} \tag{3.7.1}$$

$$A_{18.7} = 1.9 A_{12.7} \tag{3.7.2}$$

$$A_{12.7} = 1.25 A_{11.2}$$
 (3.7.3)

which relate the values of attenuation at two frequencies for the same length and probability.

From the above relations one can obtain:

$$\left(\frac{A_f}{A_{fo}}\right) = \left(\frac{f}{f_o}\right)^{1.72} \tag{3.7.4}$$

which at least in the range 11 to 18 GHz allows one to calculate empirically the attenuations of an event at frequency f given the attenuation of the same event at f_0 , the same event meaning the same link length and probability.

3.8 Year to year variability

As can be seen in fig. 34 there is a substantial variation in the probability of a given attenuation event across the years.

For any length and frequency the probability that a given attenuation is exceeded for a given year is very likely to be a Gaussian variate. X² tests for typical values cannot reject this hypothesis at any probability level but the number of samples is so small that the significance of the test is, at least, dubious.

These yearly variations have to be taken into account in the planning of radio systems and also in establishing the duration of experiments to collect attenuation statistics. These variations depend on frequency and link length in a complicated way. In

fig. 50 the coefficient of variation of the probability of a given event is plotted as a function of hop length for discrete attenuation levels. The coefficient of variation is defined as follows:

c.o.v. =
$$\frac{s}{\mu} \times 100$$

where S is the sample variance and μ is the sample mean, the variable being the probability of a given event.

4. ATTENUATION BY RAINGAUGE ACROSS CANADA

4.1 Introduction

For the purpose of obtaining some information about the geographical dependence of the attenuation statistics of interest, 5 more locations have been selected to carry on a study similar to the one carried on for Montreal. Fig. 51 shows these locations and the radiosonde stations whose upper air data were employed in the analysis. As in Montreal, 10 years of raingauge data were analyzed for each location covering the months from May to September for the decade from 1962 to 1971. The actual locations were chosen as corresponding to highly populated regions and with the intention of covering the possible routes of Canadian radio systems. The west coast and the Rocky Mountains were excluded because of the strong reographic character of the precipitation there.

The results of this study are certainly not conclusive or complete, leaving large parts of the country uncovered. In particular, the region between Halifax and Montreal needs further analysis as well as the region between Edmonton and Winnipeg. Nevertheless an overall pattern appears from the available data. There is a region containing Montreal, Toronto, Thunder Bay and Winnipeg where attenuation statistics are severe and particularly similar for the four locations. East of this region, maritime climate generates less severe statistics (Halifax), and westward (Edmonton) less severe statistics occur in correspondence to a continental climate. The boundaries of this region are not well defined at this stage of the analysis.

In carrying on this study a further hypothesis has to be introduced. That is that the 700 mb winds are representative of the precipitation patterns motion all over the country. This is largely arbitrary because this hypothesis has been tested only

in Montreal (fig. 33). Nevertheless this appears to be a reasonable hypothesis and certainly not a critical one; fig. 52 shows Winnipeg statistics calculated using radiosonde data from International Falls and Sault Ste. Marie. The curves are very close to each other thus insuring a certain reliability to the study. In the following paragraphs the statistics for the various locations are presented.

4.2 Halifax

Figs. 53,54,55 show provabilities versus attenuation at 11.2, 12.7, 18.7 GHz. Like for Montreal the probability that a given attenuation is exceeded decreases exponentially versus attenuation at least to a probability of about 3.10-6 of one year.

The joint probabilities (figs. 56, 57,58,59,60,61) are very small for every value of attenuation, length and frequency. This result has important consequences for the design of radio systems because attenuation events on consecutive links can then be considered independently.

Tables IX to XIV present histograms of duration at 11.2 GHz for various hop lengths. Fig. 62 shows the coefficient of variation across ten years. For the definition of these curves see paragraph 3.8. The curves in fig. 62 differ from the Montreal one. fig. 50, in the sense that the variability in Halifax is substantially larger, and the length dependence is different, suggesting smaller high rate rain cells than in Montreal.

4.3 Toronto

Figs. 63,64,65 show probabilities versus attenuation at 11.2, 12.7, 18.7 GHz. The curves are very close to those for Montreal although, as will be seen in paragraph 4.7, the precipitation statistics are different.

The joint probabilities (figs. 66, 67,68,69,70,71) suggest complicated interactions between cell size and hop lengths. They are generally higher than in Halifax and similar to those in Montreal. The values are such to make these statistics an important factor in the design of radio systems.

Histograms of duration at 11.2 GHz are given in the tables XV to XX in correspondence to various lengths.

The coefficients of variations are plotted in fig. 72 (for the definition see paragraph 3.8). It appears that the yearly variability is generally somehow higher than in Montreal and less than in Halifax.

4.4 Thunder Bay

As the name says, Thunder Bay is quite stormy at least for what concerns attenuation. Figs. 73,74,75 show probabilities versus attenuation at 11.2, 12.7, 16.7 GHz. These curves are very close to the ones for Montreal and Toronto. The joint probabilities (figs. 76,77,78,79,80,81) are close to the Montreal-Toronto ones for short lengths and somehow less for longer lengths suggesting smaller sizes of rain cells. Also in Thunder Bay the values of joint probabilities are such to make them relevant in the design of radio systems.

Histograms of duration are presented in Tables XXI to XXVI. The coefficients of variation are plotted in fig. 82 (for the definition see paragraph 3.8). Relative to the other locations the variability in Thunder Bay is higher than in Montreal, slightly higher than in Toronto and lower than in Halifax.

4.5 Winnipeg

Figs. 83,84,85 show probabilities versus attenuation at 11.2, 12.7, 18.7 GHz. Again these curves are very similar to those for Montreal. In calculating these curves some extreme events were discarded from the data.

The joint probabilities (figs. 86, 87,88,89,90,91) are very similar to those for Montreal.

Histograms of durations are presented in Tables XXVII to XXXII. The coefficients of variation are plotted in fig. 92 (for the definition see paragraph 3.8). Relative to other locations the variability in Winnipeg is higher except for Halifax.

4.6 Edmonton

A well established pattern of similarities in the attenuation statistics is encountered moving westward from Montreal. This pattern presents a marked discontinuity in Edmonton and whether this is the result of a gradual change or of an abrupt discontinuity somewhere between Winnipeg and Edmonton is not yet known. The available climatological data do not furnish an explanation of this problem and it will probably be necessary to analyze raingauge data for locations between Winnipeg and Edmonton.

Figs. 93,94 and 95 show probabilities versus attenuation at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz. For any length and frequency the probability of exceeding a given attenuation is much less than in any other locality in this study, thus allowing much longer hop lengths.

The joint probabilities (figs. 96, 97,98,99,100 and 101) are so small that no advantage can be obtained by taking them into account for the design of radio systems. The behaviour of the single link and joint link statistics in Edmonton can be interpreted in terms of frequency of occurrence of given rain events and their size. Something in this line will be attempted in the next paragraph.

Histograms of durations at 11.2 GHz are given in Tables XXXIII to XXXVIII. The coefficients of variation are plotted in fig. 102 (for the definition see paragraph 3.8), they are generally higher than in the other locations but, of course, the smaller sample size of the events has to be taken into account in explaining this behaviour.

4.7 Comparisons

As stated in para. 4.1, the six locations considered can be, in many respects, distributed in three groups with different properties. Fig. 103 shows, the attenuation exceeded for a probability of 10^{-5} of one year in function of hop length for the six locations. It is apparent that Montreal, Toronto, Thunder Bay, Winnipeg behave very much in the same way, while Halifax and Edmonton have a different behaviour. A similar pattern could be observed for the joint probabilities although less clearly because these quantities are determined with a smaller sample size and thus with less statistical accuracy. The year to year variability doesn't follow a pattern as clear as the one for the probabilities, and a comparison between the locations must take into account the relative sample sizes. For these reasons some statistics of the precipitation processes in the various locations are presented here, having been obtained from the same raingauge records used for the attenuation studies.

Table XXXIX shows the number of precipitation events in ten years exceeding a given rainfall rate in the six locations, and Table XL shows the features of the population of the event sizes. It appears, for instance, that the behavior of Edmonton statistics is consistent with these data which show rarer and shorter events which corresponds to smaller probability of a given attenuation.

l.8 Planning a radio system across Canada

The result presented here so far can be used for the planning of a radio system across Canada, at least in a general sense. They are by no means sufficient for a practical design for which a more detailed coverage of the country would be needed. In a general sense the data presented here allow some considerations:

It appears that there is one large region, at least extending from Montreal to Winnipeg, where the probability of exceeding a given attenuation is almost uniform so that a uniform criterion of design is allowed. Inside this region year to year variability is larger in certain places than in others so that in order to have uniform performances some allowances have to be made in this respect. In this region the spatial structure of the precipitation pattern is such that joint events of sizeable attenuations are frequent enough to make it worth taking them into account for more economical planning.

Outside this region, both eastward and westward, the probabilities are lower thus making possible the use of longer hop lengths although this advantage is partially compensated by larger year to year variability and independency of events. The boundaries of the region are not known, so that it is impossible to evaluate accurately the cost of a system. For this further studies are necessary.

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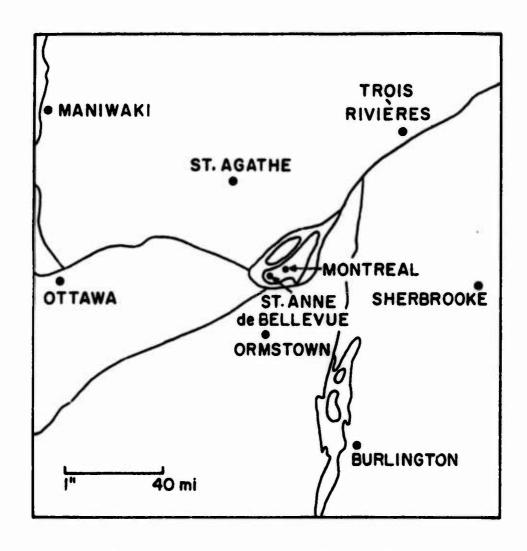


Fig. 1. The experimental link was located in Ormstown 20 miles south of Montreal.

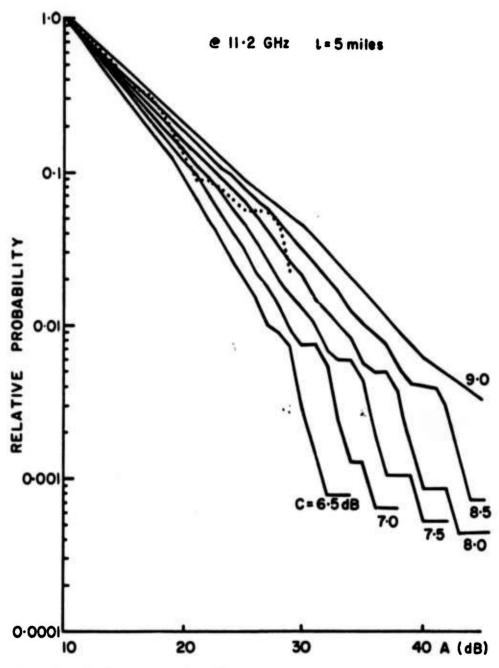
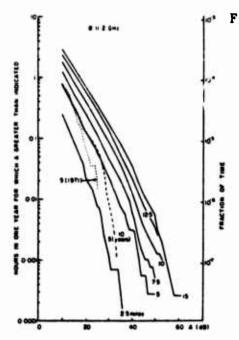
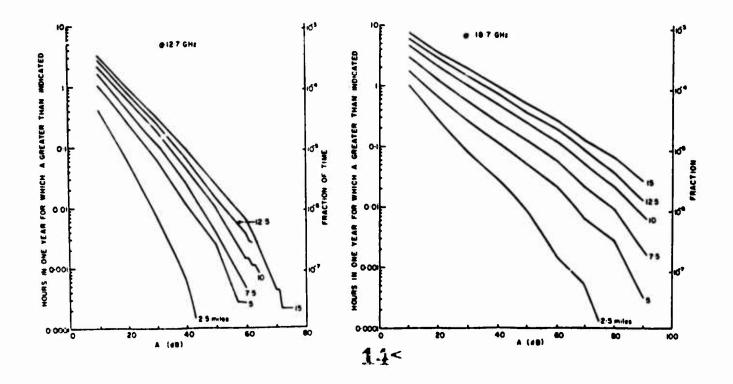
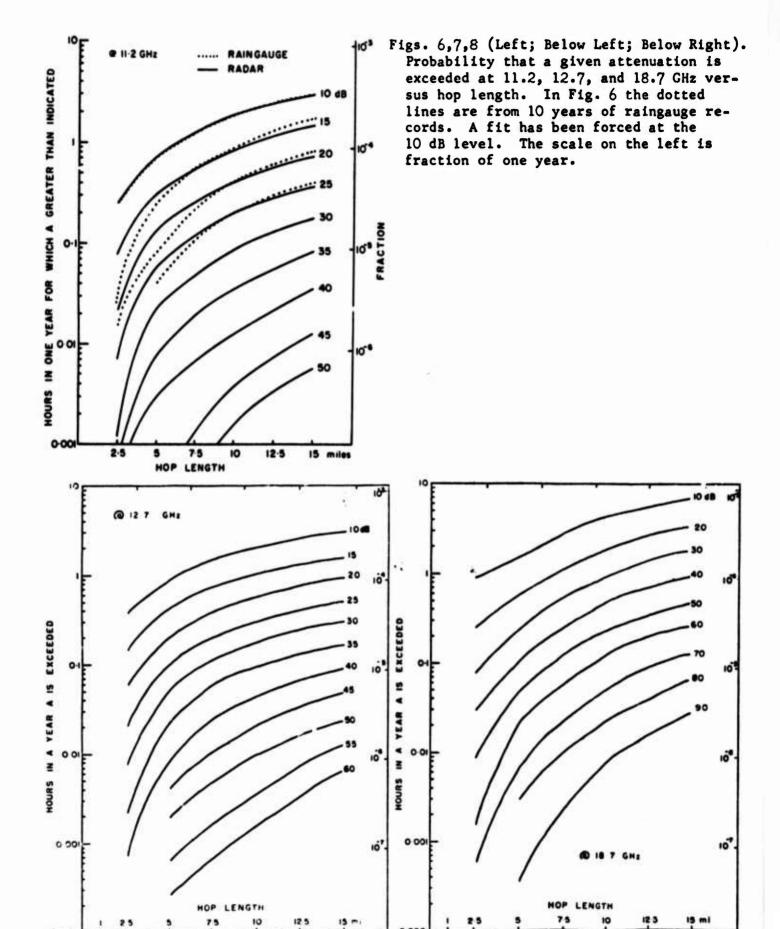


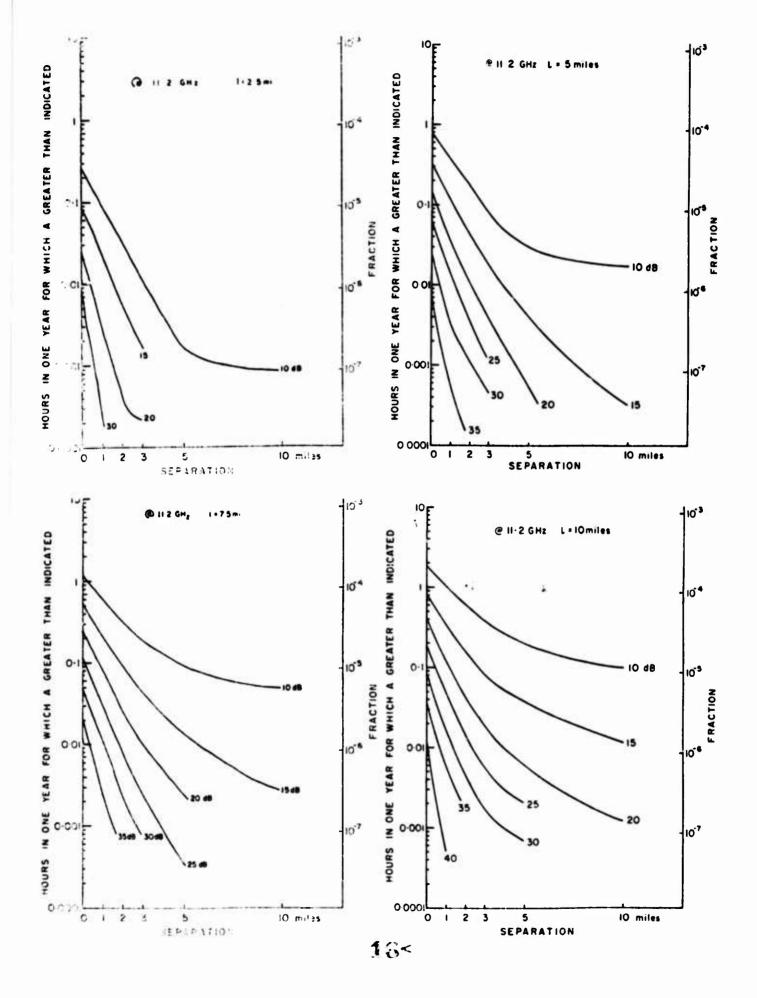
Fig. 2. Relative probabilities that a given attenuation is exceeded (continuous lines) as obtained for different values of the calibration constant (in a relative scale). The dotted curve is obtained from the experimental link. All curves are normalized to 1 for 10 dB of attenuation.

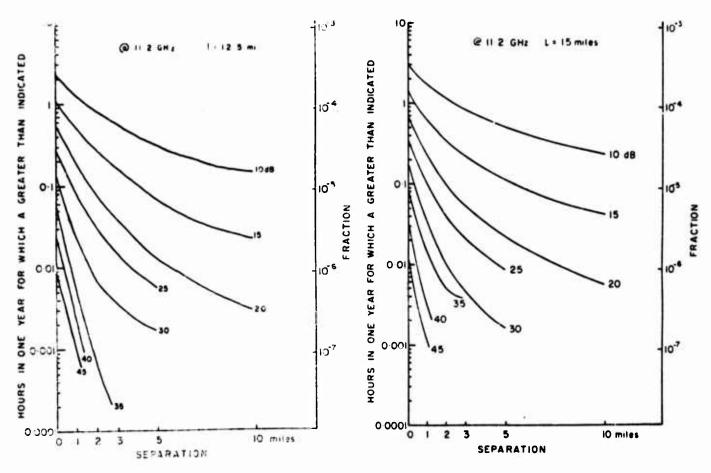


Figs. 3,4,5 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Probability that a given attenuation is exceeded at 11.2, 12.7, and 18.7 GHz for various link lengths. In Fig. 3 the dotted curve is from the 1971 experiment in Ormstown. The dashed curve is obtained from 10 years of raingauge records and has been normalized to the same probability for 10 dB.

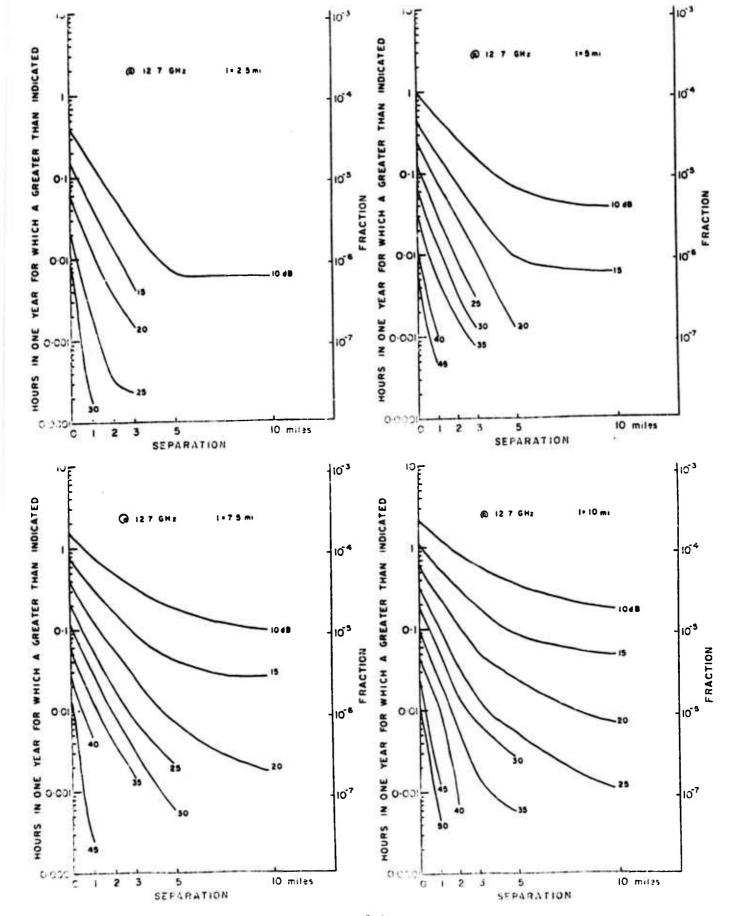


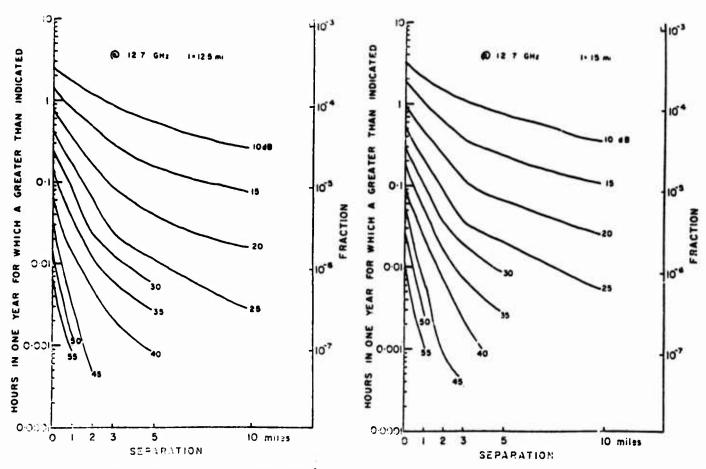






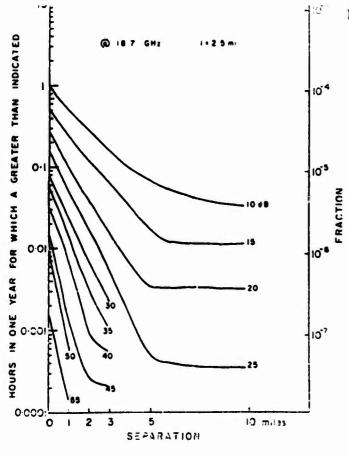
Figs. 9 to 14. Probability that a given attenuation is jointly exceeded on parallel links at 11.2 GHz versus separation distance for various hop lengths.



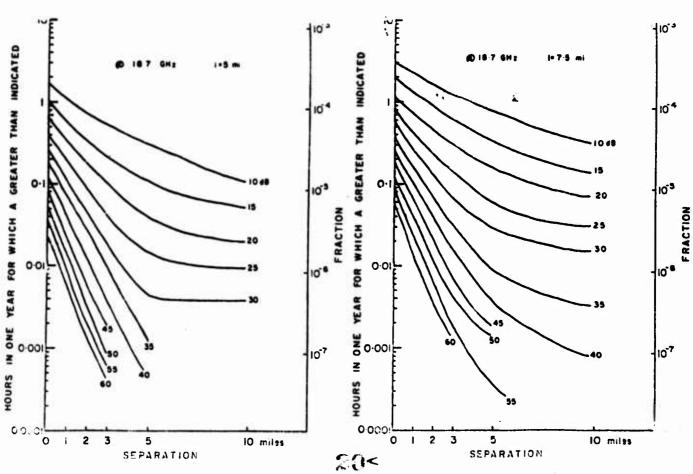


Figs. 15 to 20. Probability that a given attenuation is jointly exceeded on parallel links at 12.7 GHz versus separation distance for various hop lengths.

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Figs. 21,22,23 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Probability that a given attenuation is jointly exceeded on parallel links at 18.7 GHz versus separation distance for various hop lengths.



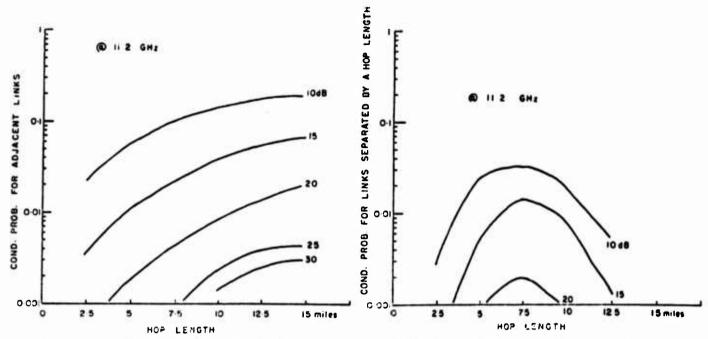


Fig. 24. Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded jointly on consecutive links versus hop length at 11.2 GHz.

Fig. 25. Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded jointly on links separated by a hop length versus hop length at 11.2 GHz.

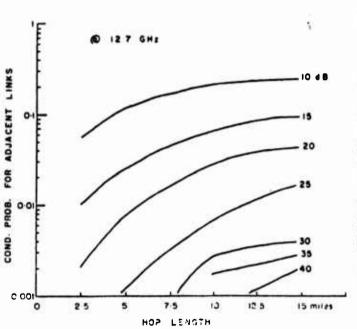


Fig. 26. Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded jointly on consecutive links versus hop length at 12.7 GHz.

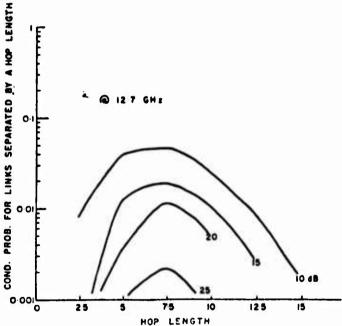


Fig. 27. Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded jointly on links separated by a hop length versus hop length at 12.7 GHz.

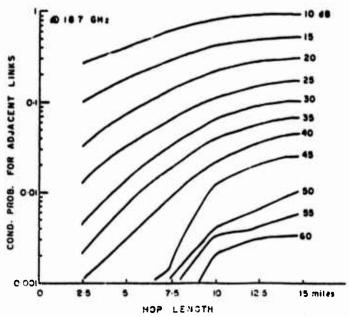


Fig. 28. Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded jointly on consecutive links versus hop lengths at 18.7 GHz.

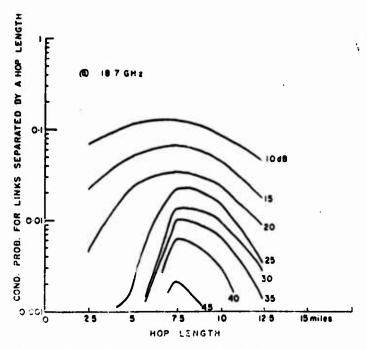


Fig. 29. Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded jointly on links separated by a hop length versus hop length at 18.7 GHz.

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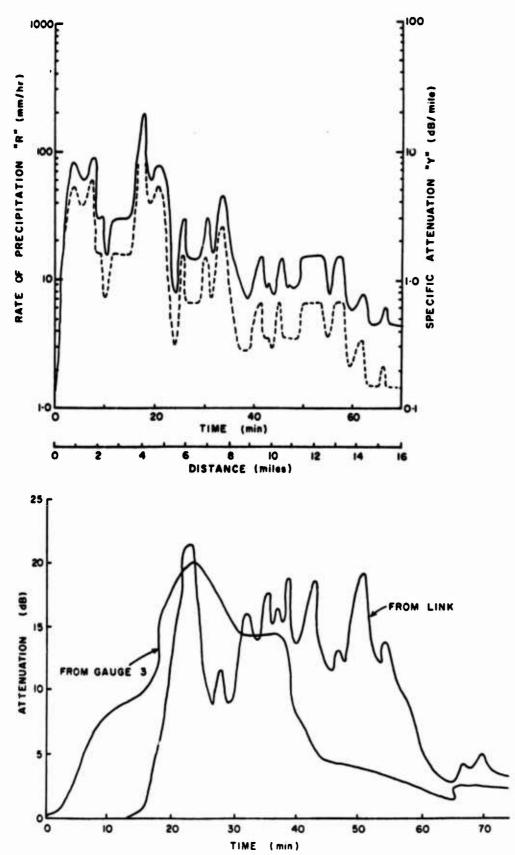


Fig. 30 (Above). Synthetic storm of the 20th August 1971 (continuous line). The dotted line refers to specific attenuation at 11.2 GHz.

Fig. 31 (Below). The storm of Fig. 30 has been used to calculate the attenuation for a 5-mile link at 11.2 GHz. For comparison the actual attenuation experienced by this link is plotted. Note the coincidence of the peak at 22 minutes. This is due to chance because the storm hit the raingauge with its maximum intensity.

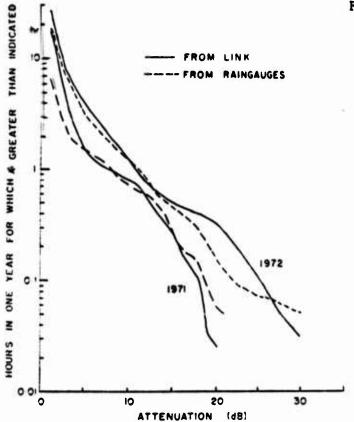
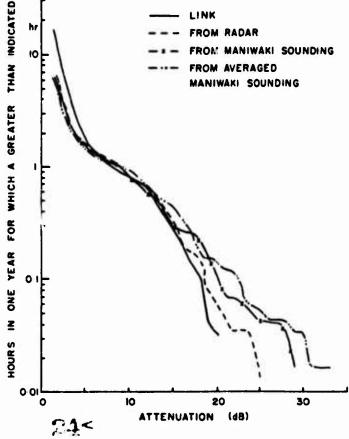
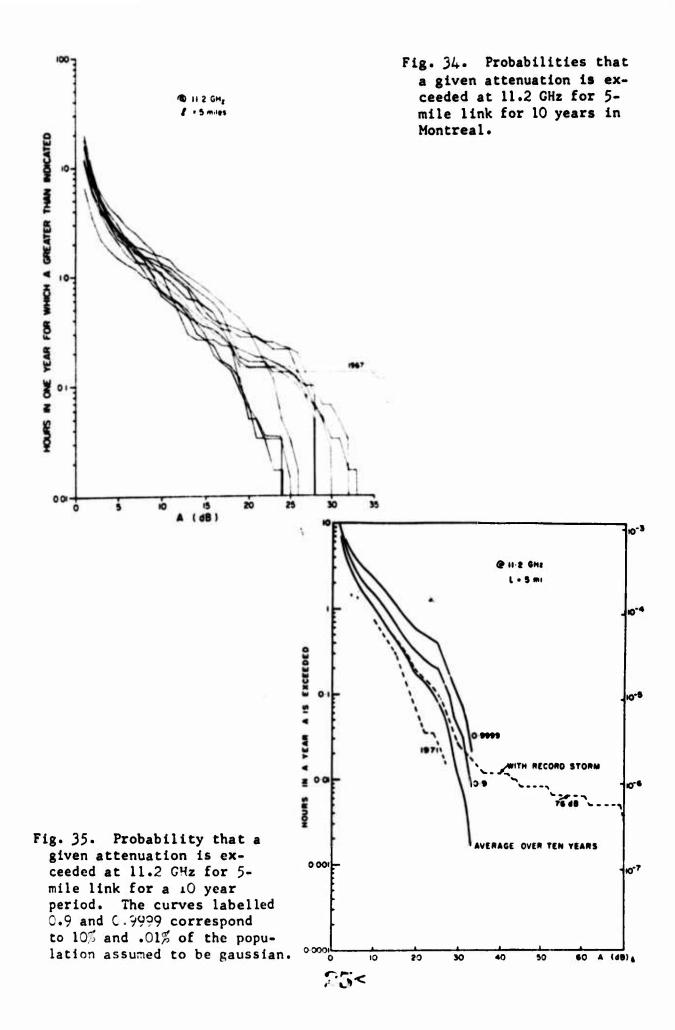
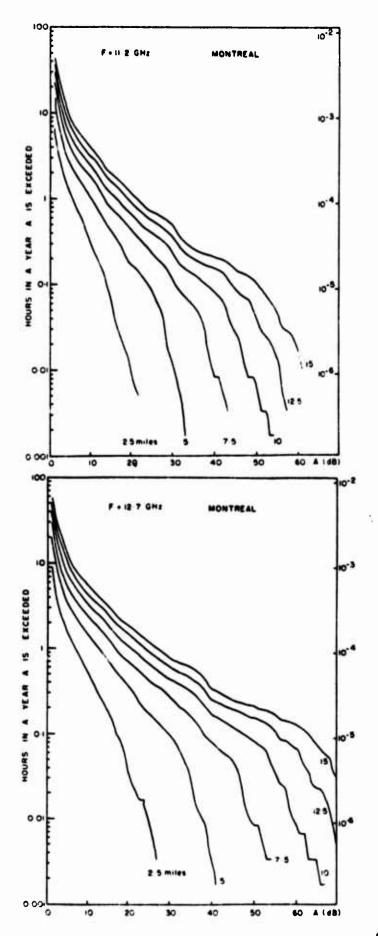


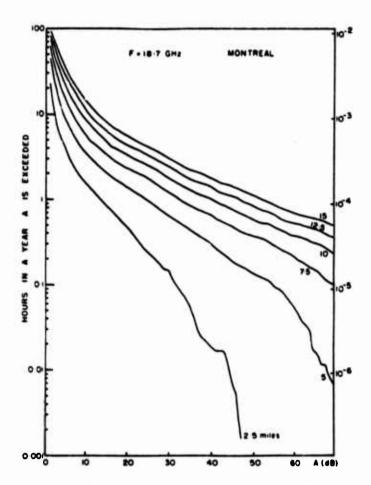
Fig. 32. Probability that a given attenuation is exceeded for a 5-mile link at 11.2 GHz as calculated from raingauge (dashed) and measured on the real link (continuous). The data are for 1971 and 1972.

Fig. 33. 1971 statistics using different estimates of the velocity of precipitation patterns. The curve with two dots is obtained using one value of velocity for the entire summer. This is to show the relative insensitivity of the results to the velocity used in the calculations.

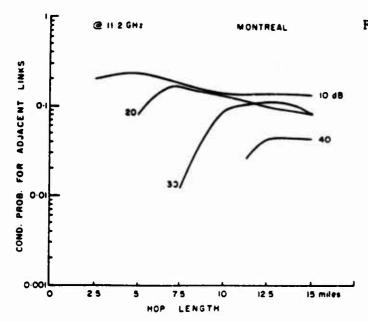




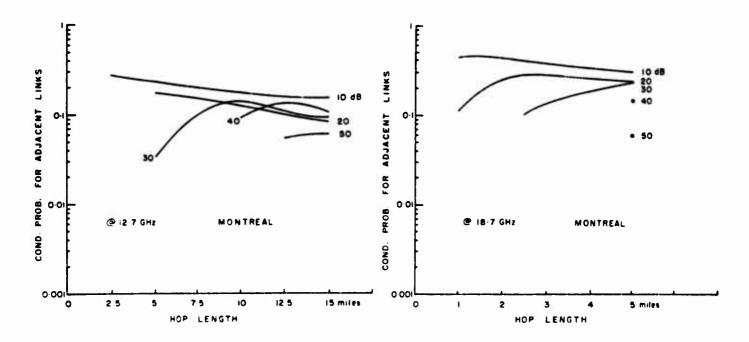


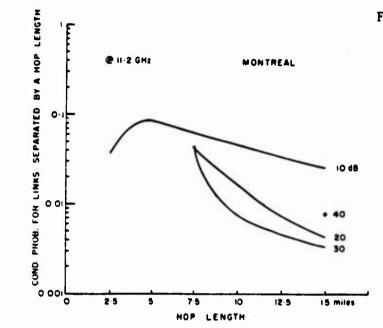


Figs. 36,37,38 (Top Left; Bottom Left; Above). Probability that a given attenuation is exceeded at 11.2, 12.7, 18.7 GHz for various hop lengths. The curves are obtained averaging 10 years of data.

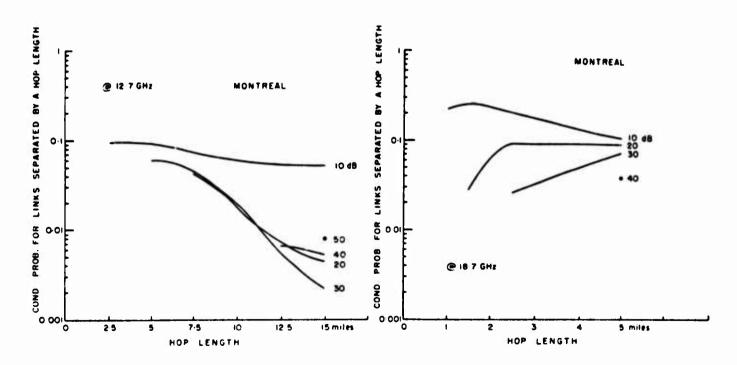


Figs. 39,40,41 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on adjacent links at 11.2, 12.7, and 18.7 GHz.





Figs. 42,43,44 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on two links separated by a link length at 11.2, 12.7, 18.7 GHz.



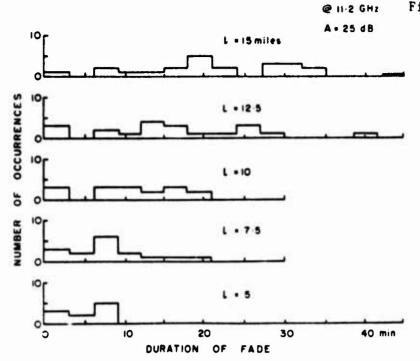


Fig. 45. Histograms of durations of 25 dB attenuation events at 11.2 GHz for various hop lengths in 10 years.

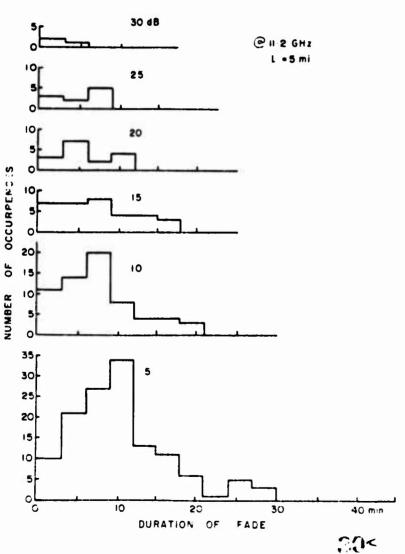
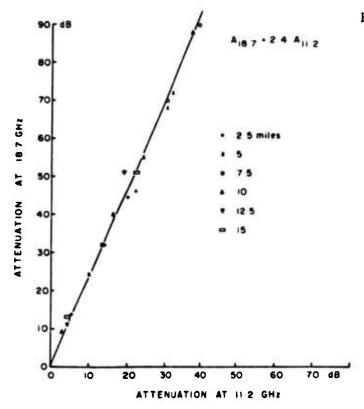
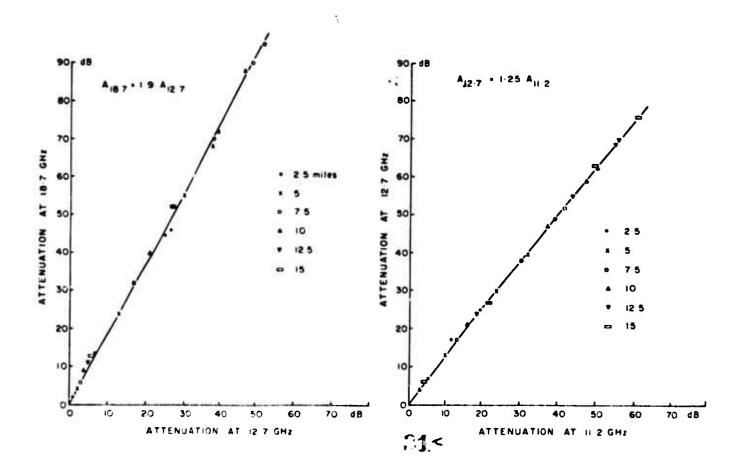


Fig. 46. Histograms of durations of events at a given attenuation for a 5 mile link at 11.2 GHz in 10 years.



Figs. 47,48,49 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Correlogram of attenuation events at 11.2, 12.7, 18.7 GHz. The events have the same probability level and are for the same hop length.



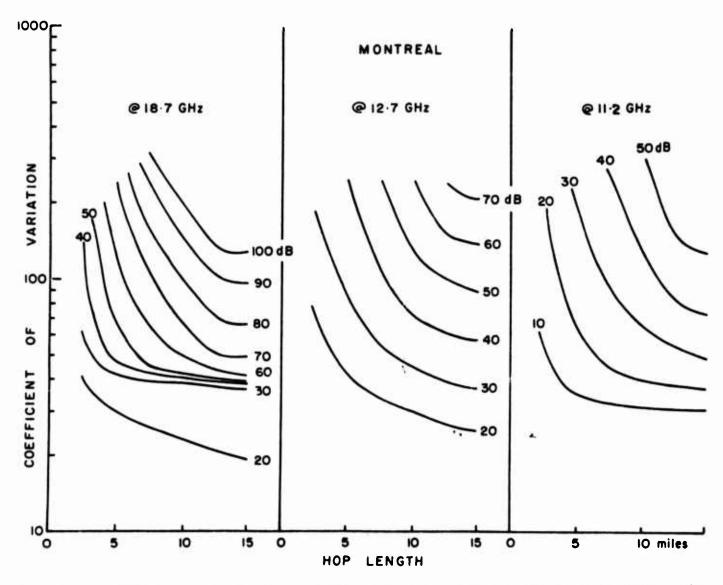


Fig. 50. Coefficient of variation of the yearly probability that a given attenuation is exceeded versus hop length for 11.2, 12.7, and 18.7 GHz.

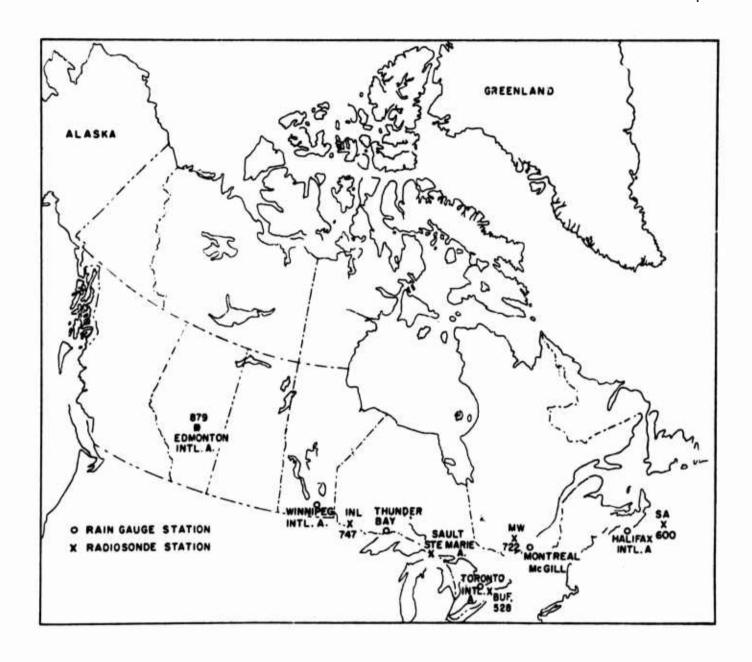


Fig. 51. Map of Canada showing the location of the raingauge stations and rawinsonde stations considered in this study.

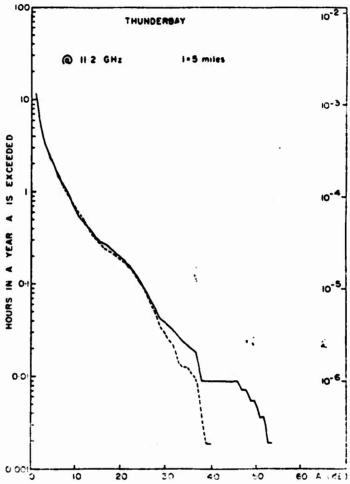
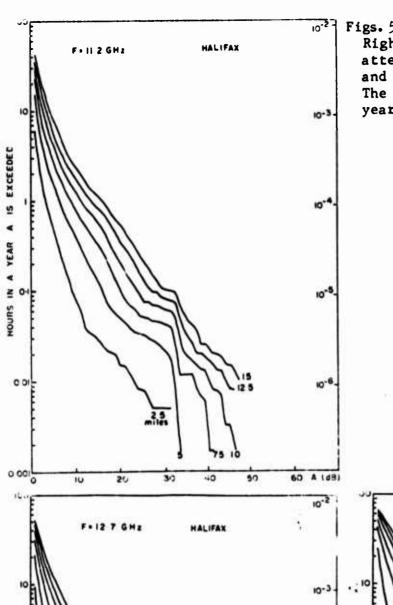
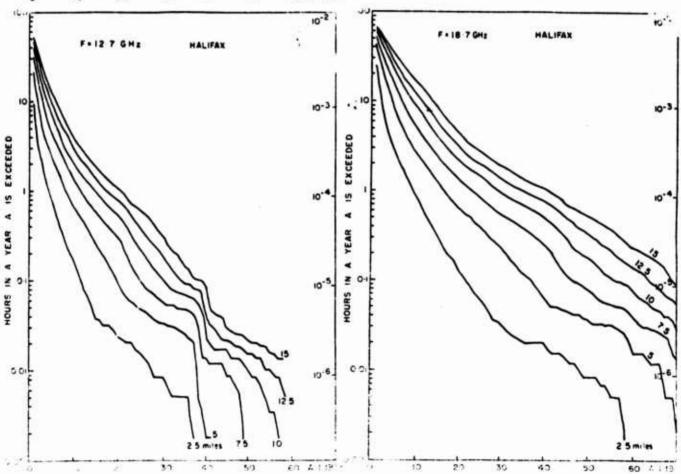
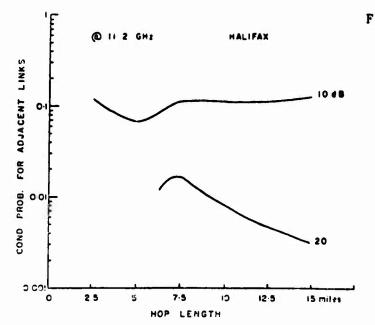


Fig. 52. Probabilities of exceeding a given attenuation for a 5-mile link at 11.2 GHz. The two curves are calculated using wind velocities from International Falls (continuous) and Sault Ste. Marie (dotted).

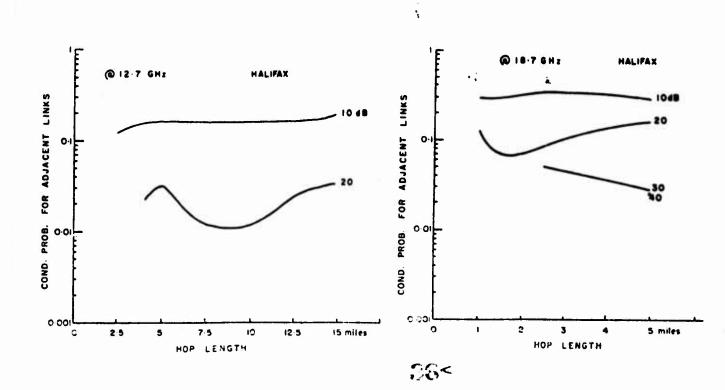


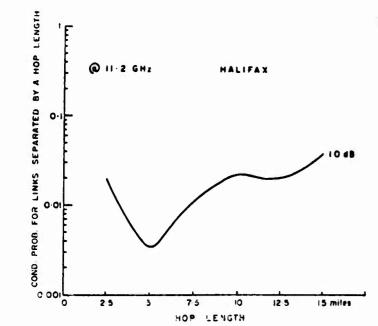
Figs. 53,54,55 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Probability that a given attenuation is exceeded at 11.2, 12.7, and 18.7 GHz for various hop lengths. The curves are obtained averaging 10 years of data.



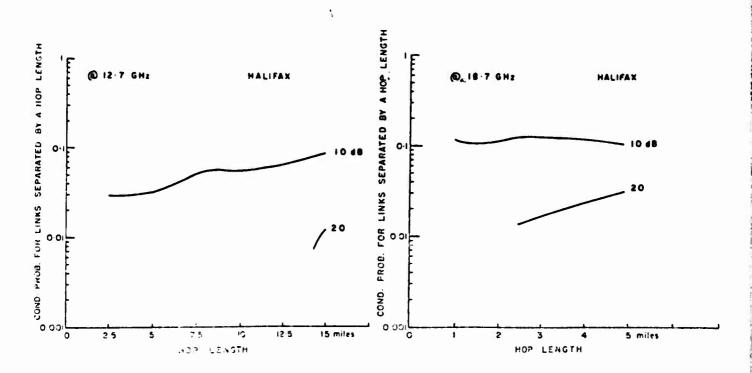


Figs. 56,57,58 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on adjacent links at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.





Figs. 59,60,61 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on two links separated by a link length at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



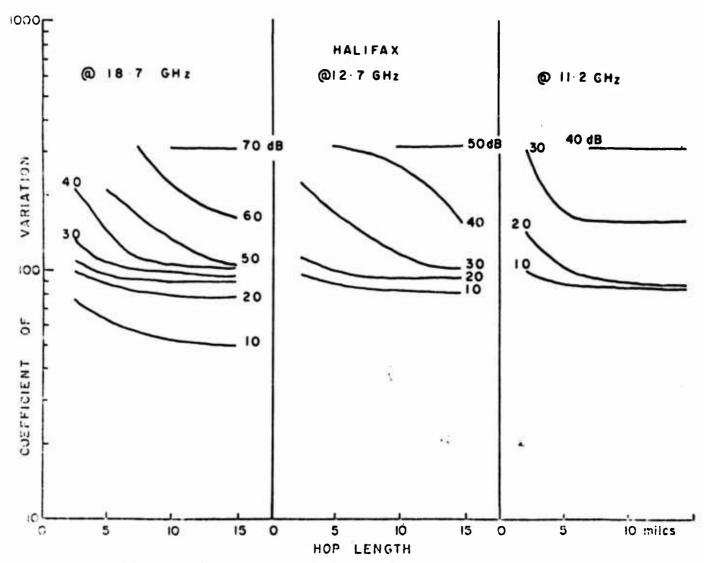
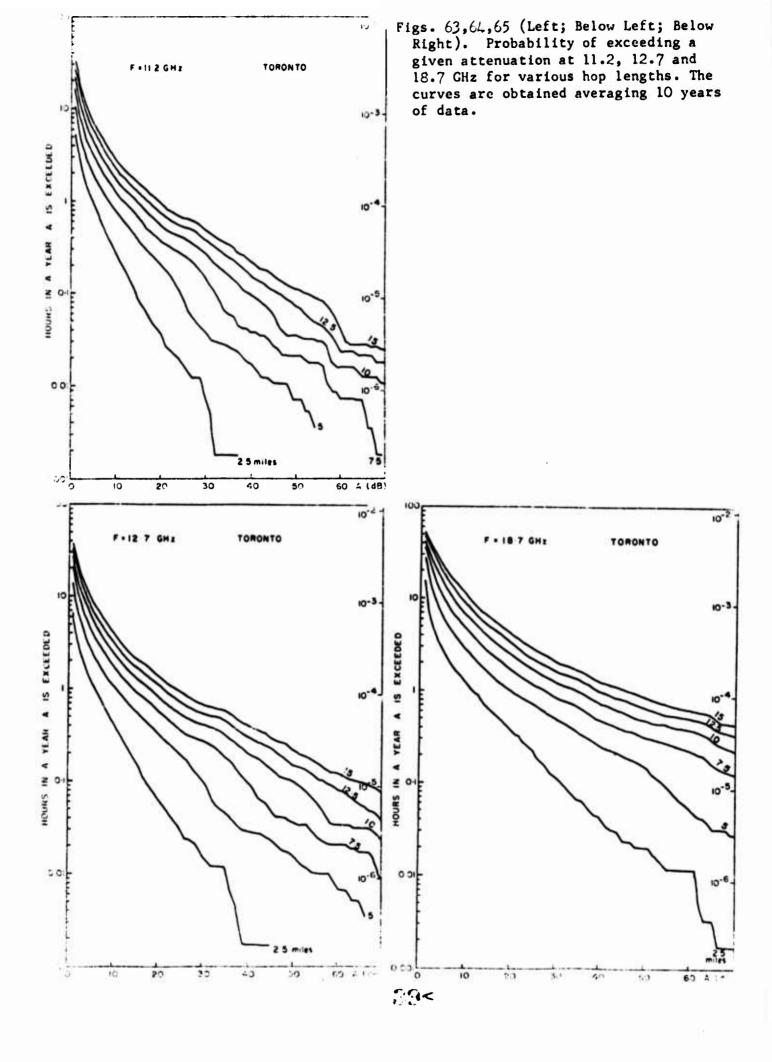
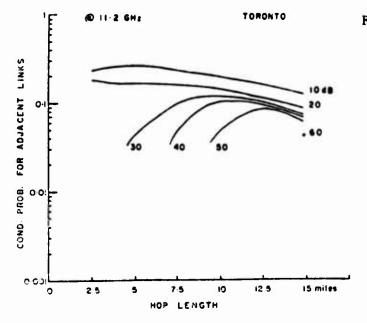
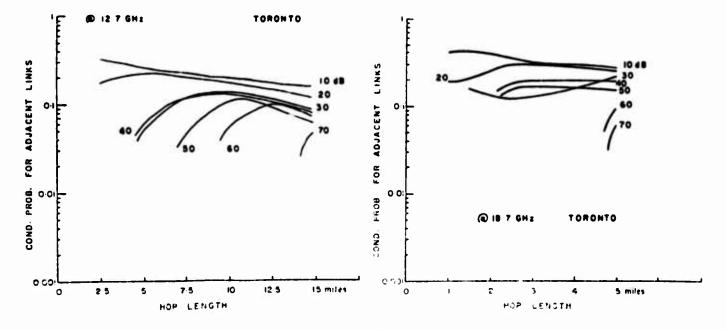


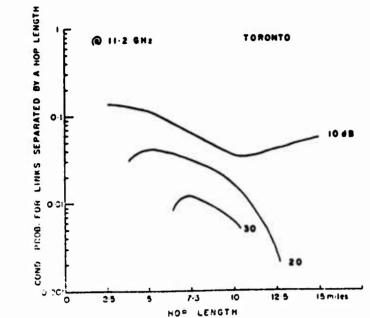
Fig. 62. Coefficient of variation of the yearly probability that a given attenuation is exceeded versus hop length for 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



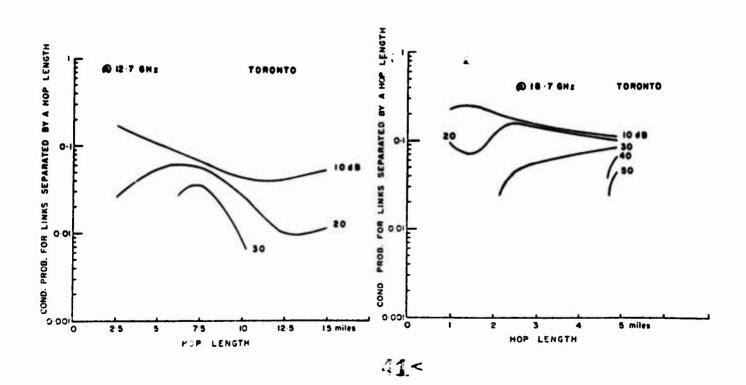


Figs. 66,67,68 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on adjacent links at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.





Figs. 69,70,71 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on two links separated by a link length at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



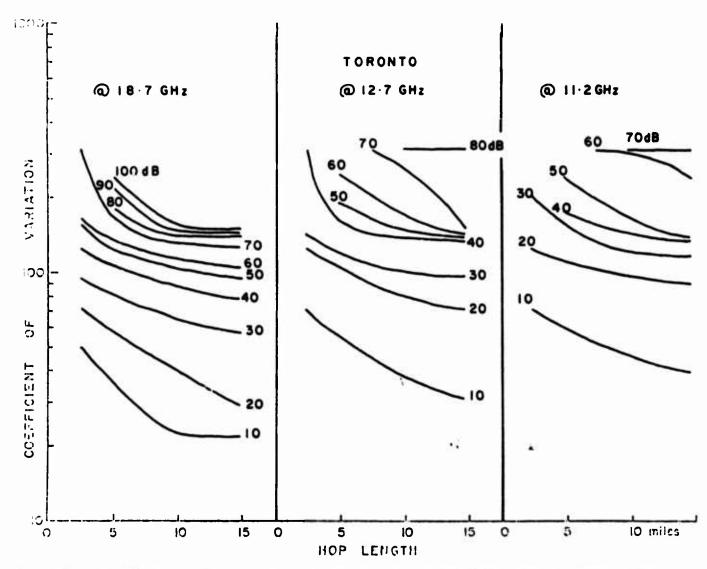
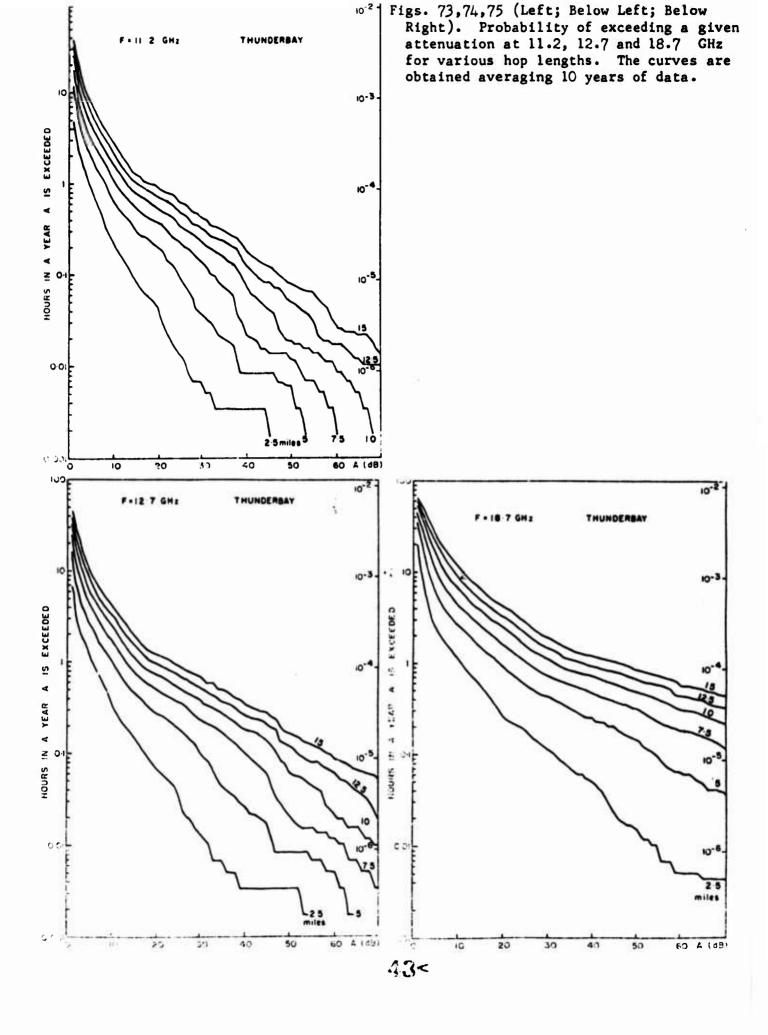
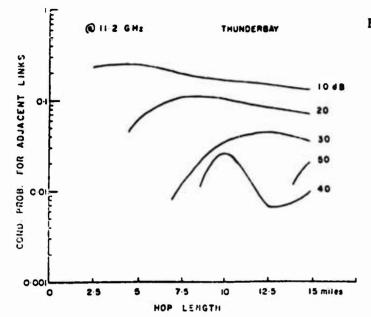
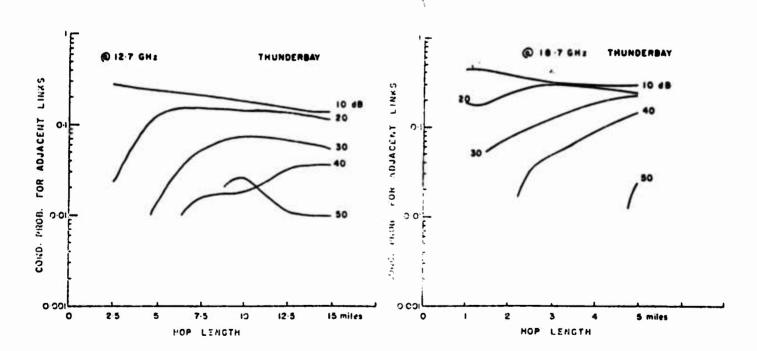


Fig. 72. Coefficient of variation of the yearly probability that a given attenuation is exceeded versus hop length for 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.





Figs. 76,77,78 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on adjacent links at 11.2, 12.7, and 18.7 GHz.

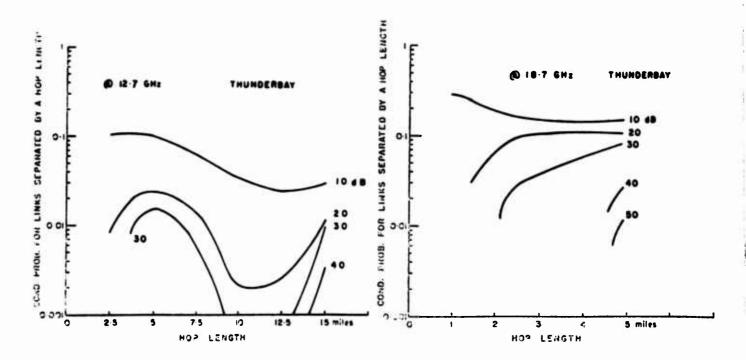


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Figs. 79,80,81 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on two links separated by a hop length at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



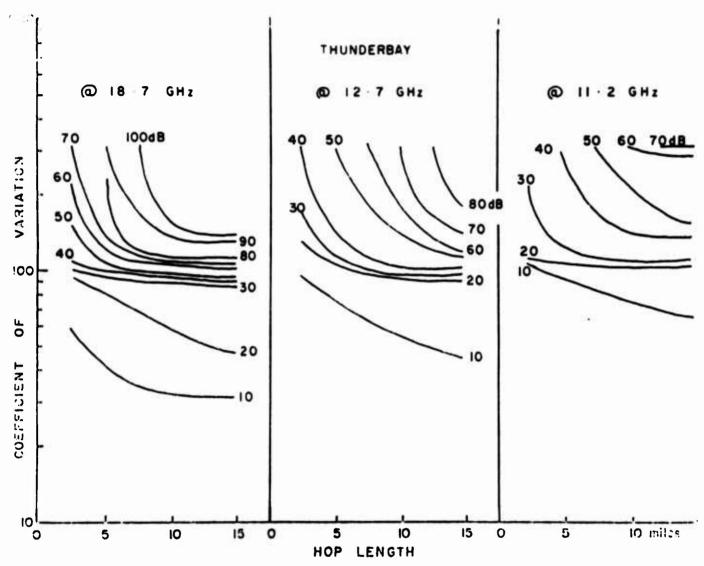
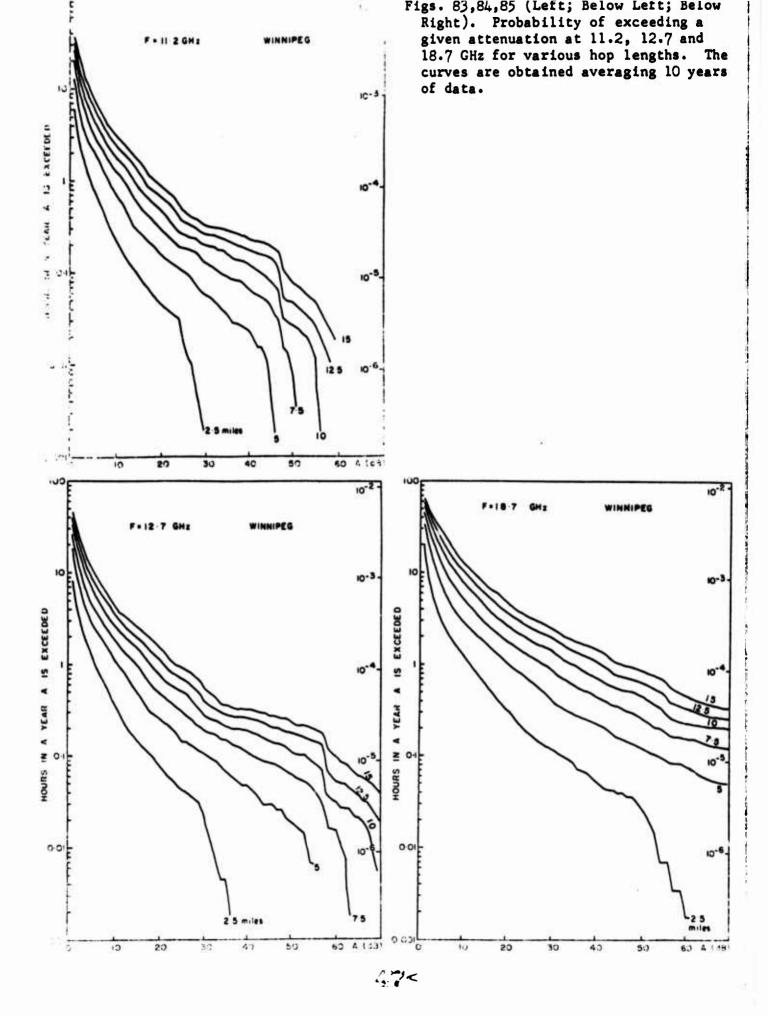
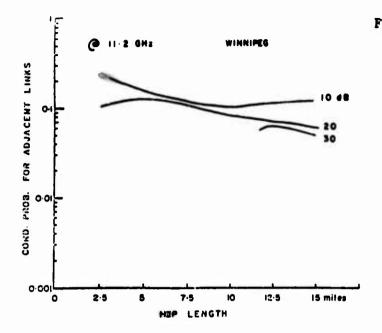
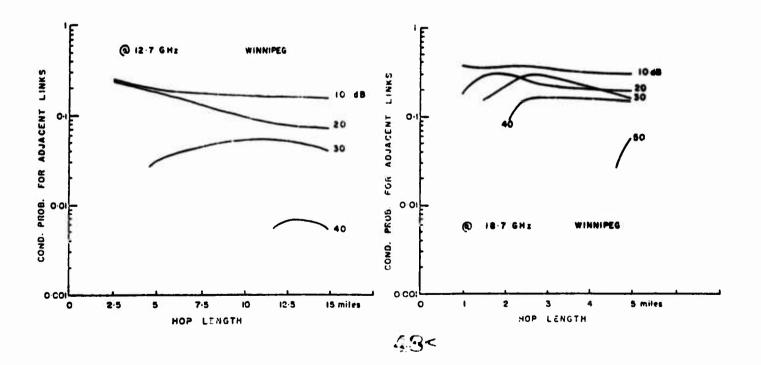


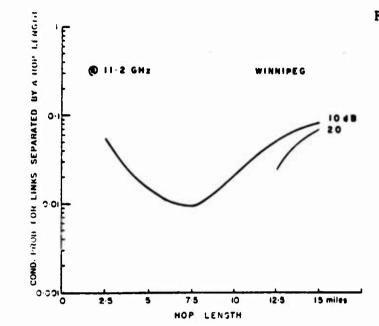
Fig. 82. Coefficient of variation of the yearly probability that a given attenuation is exceeded versus hop length for 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



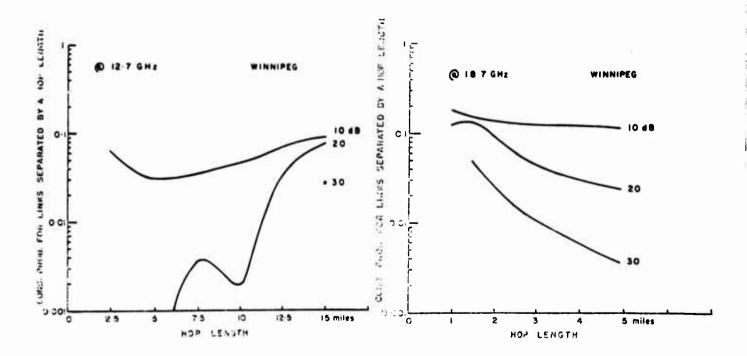


Figs. 86,87,88 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on adjacent links at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.





Figs. 89,90,91 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on two links separated by a hop length at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



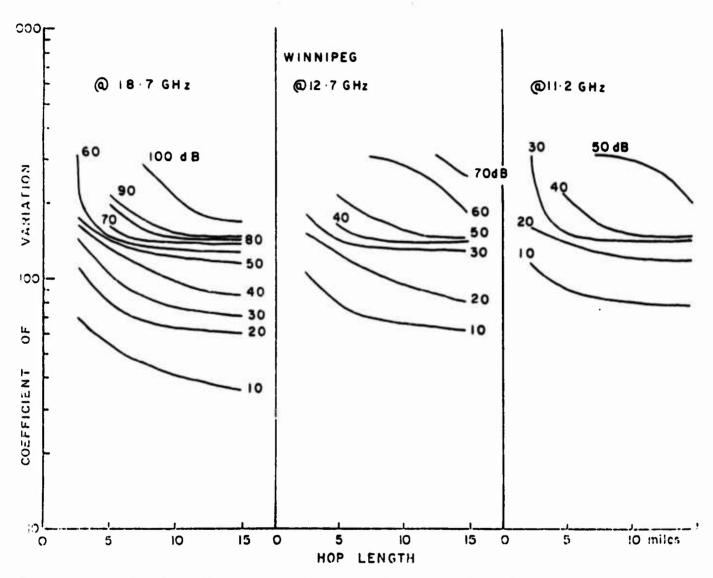
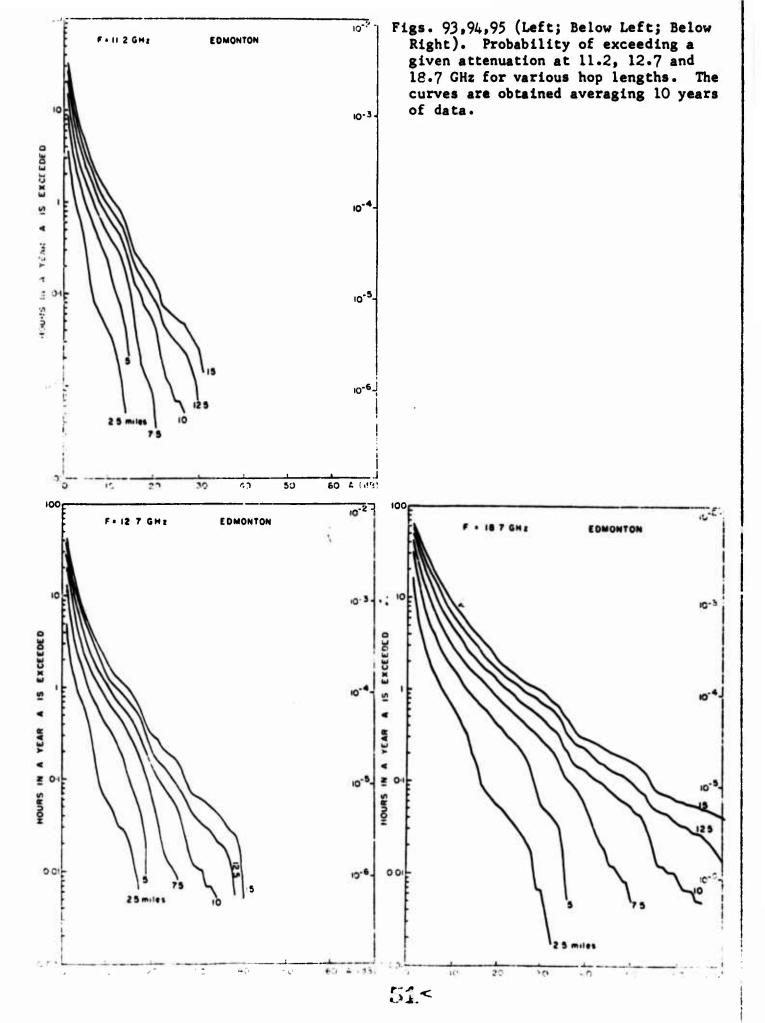
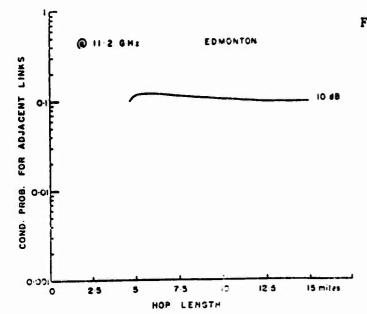
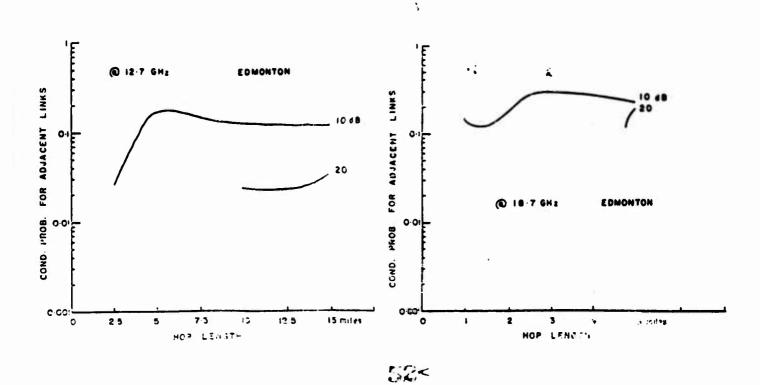


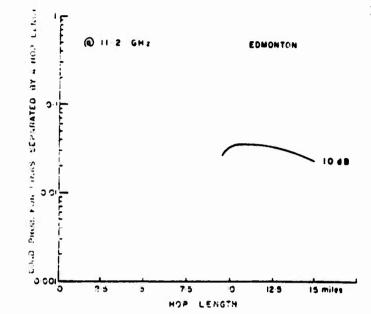
Fig. 92. Coefficient of variation of the yearly probability that a given attenuation is exceeded versus hop length for 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



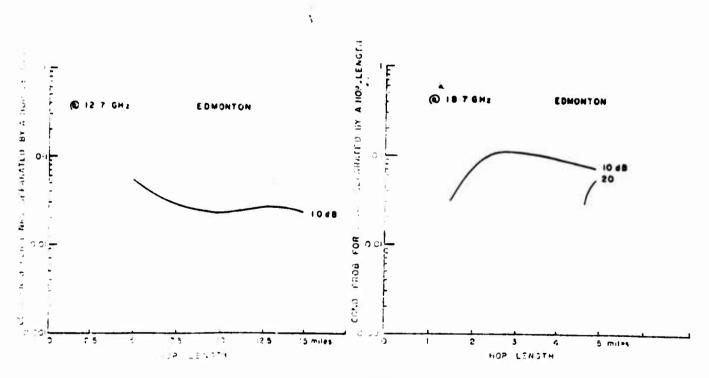


Figs. 96,97,98 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on adjacent links at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.





Figs. 99,100,101 (Left; Below Left; Below Right). Conditional probability that a given attenuation is exceeded contemporaneously on two links separated by a link length at 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.



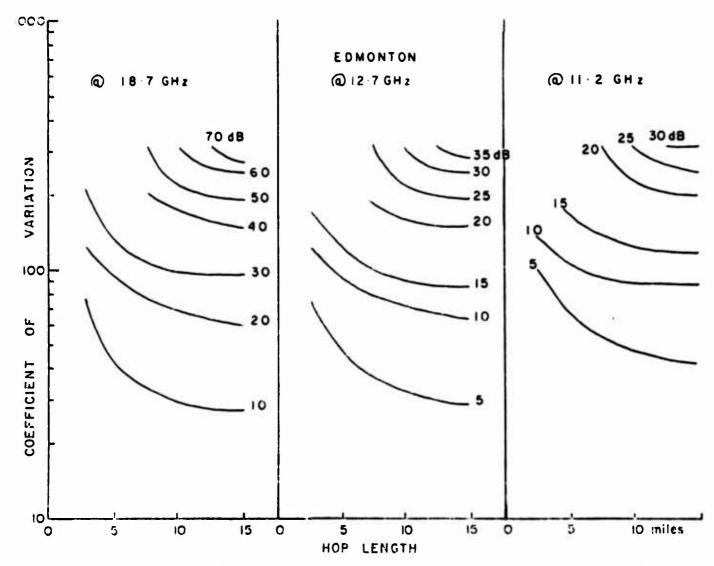


Fig. 102. Coefficient of variation of the yearly probability that a given attenuation is exceeded versus hop length for 11.2, 12.7 and 18.7 GHz.

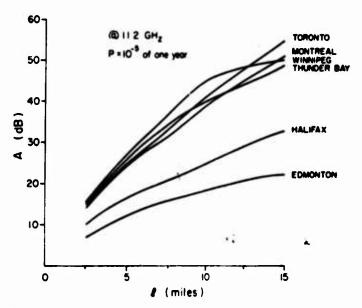


Fig. 103. Attenuation exceeded at 18.7 GHz for a probability of 10⁻⁵ of one year in function of hop length for the various locations.

TABLE 1

Frequency (GHz)	<u>k</u>	<u>a</u>
11.2	0.02304	1.24
12.7	0.0342	1.20
18.7	0.0977	1.10

TABLE II

Raingauge	Attenuation (dB)	No. of occurrences	Individual duration (mins)	Total duration (mins)
Raingauge No. 2	5	5	13,13,9,37,7	79
11	10	4	8,11,6,27	52
11	15	1	18	18
11	20	1	8	8
Iff	25	1	2	2
Raingauge No. 3	5	7	6,27,10,1,11,37	102
11	10	3	8,23,8	39
11	15	2	4,9	13
11	20	-	•	-
n	25	-	-	•
Link	5	15	1,1,4,13,8,2,42 1,2,7.7,1,2,2,2	95
11	10	6	3,7,1,27,5,6	48
11	15	5 .	4,1,5,2,3	15
11	20	1	1	1

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FADE HISTOGRAM	5 10 15 20 25 30 35	
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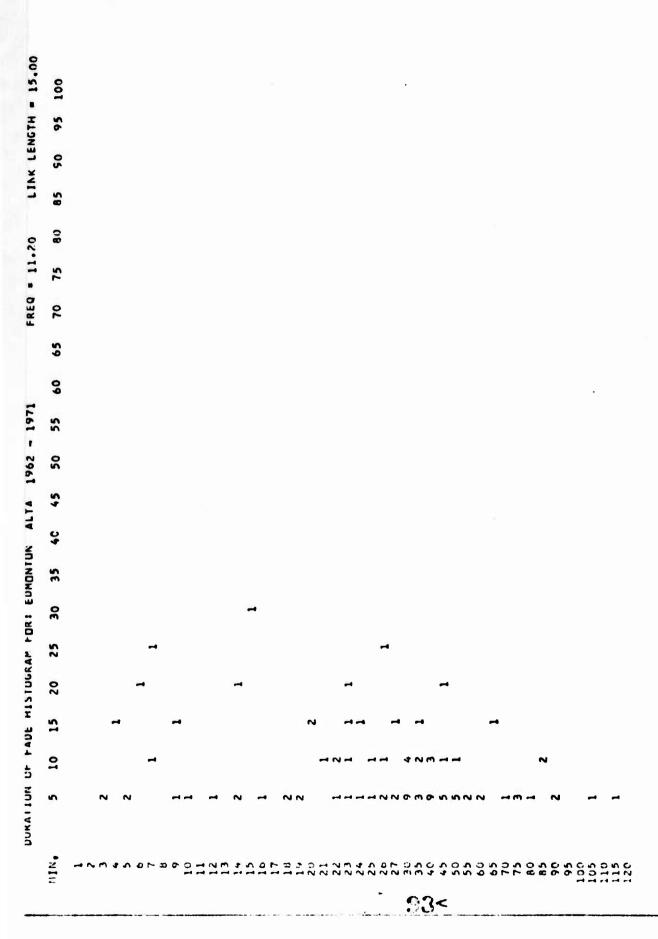
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TABLE XXXIX

Number of rain events in 10 years for various rainfall rates*

R(mm/hr)	10	30	50	70	90
Halifax	483	159	66	39	26
Montreal	699	335	123	76	54
Toronto	423	188	105	70	50
Thunder Bay	436	210	99	68	53
Winnipeg	460	179	92	60	41
Edmonton	286	94	38	14	11

An event of a given rainfall rate happens when rainfall rate exceeds the given value. Unfortunately, in the same precipitation pattern this can happen more than one time.

TABLE XL

Statistical properties of the sizes of rain events for various rainfall rates. For each rainfall rate three lengths are given in km. They correspond to the 50% level (median size), the 70% level and the 90% level.*

R(mm/hr)	10	30	50	70	90
Halifax	3.2	1.5	.8	<.5	<.5
	5.5	3.4	1.9	1	.5
	13.5	7.5	4.8	2.5	1.5
Montreal	2.1	1.3	1.7	1	.7
	3.5	2.5	3.5	2.3	2
	8.5	6.5	7.3	5.5	3.7
Toronto	2.75	1.7	1.1	1	?
	4.8	3.4	2	1.5	1.3
	11.5	7.2	5.5	3.5	3.3
Thunder Bay	2.5	1.5	1.2	1	•75
	5	3.5	2.2	1.4	1•1
	12.5	7.5	6.5	5	2•8
Winnipeg	2.4	1.5	1.2	•75	•7
	4	2.5	2	1•25	1
	10	5.5	4.5	2•5	2•5
Edmonton	2.2	1.2	1	0.5	<.5
	3.9	2.6	1.6	1.1	1
	8.5	6.5	2.9	2.3	2.5

^{50%} level means that 50% of the rain events are smaller than indicated.

^{70%} level means that 70% of the rain events are smaller than indicated, and so on.

The size of an event is defined as the time for which rainfall rate was larger than a given value, multiplied by the wind velocity.

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